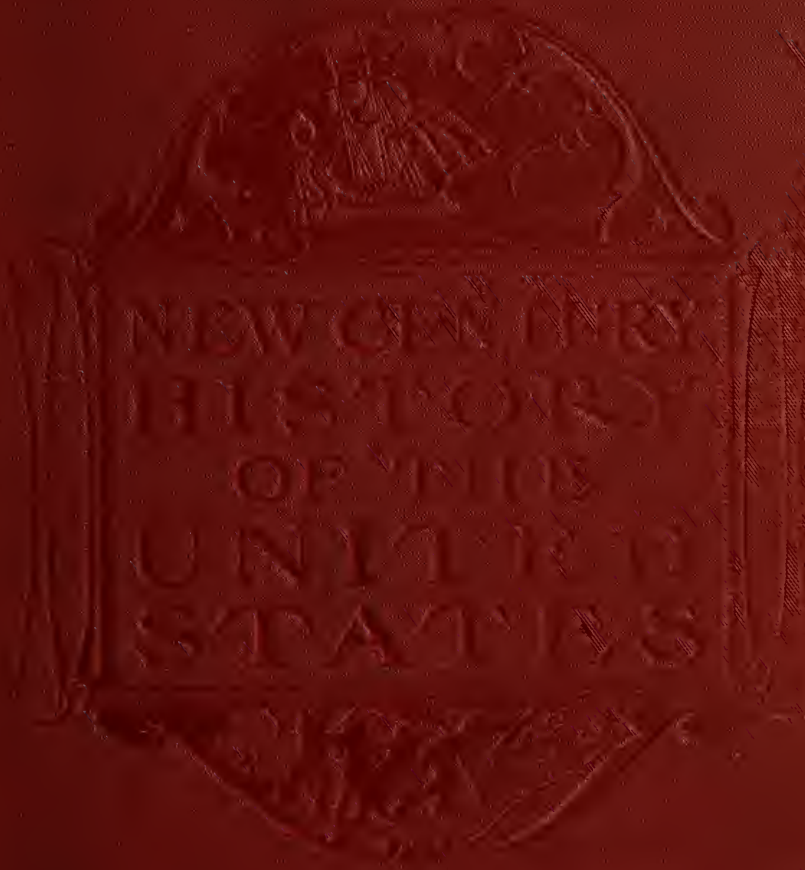

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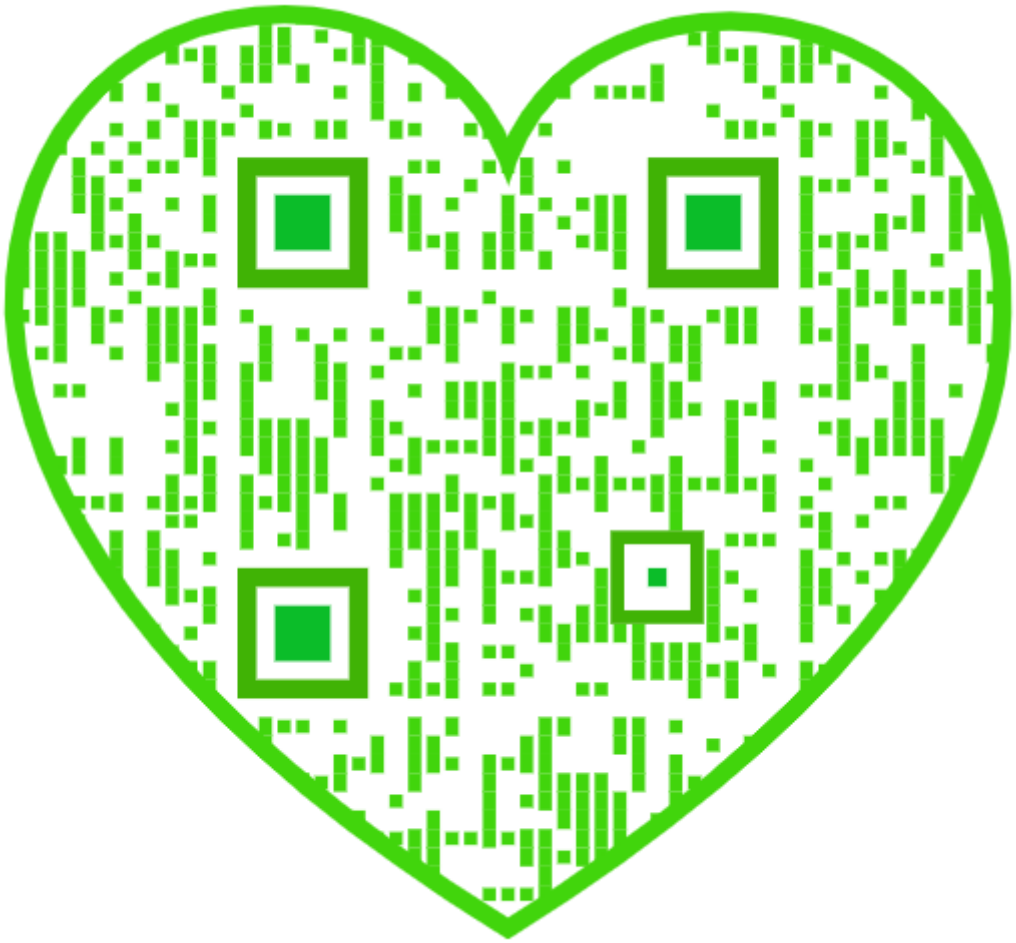

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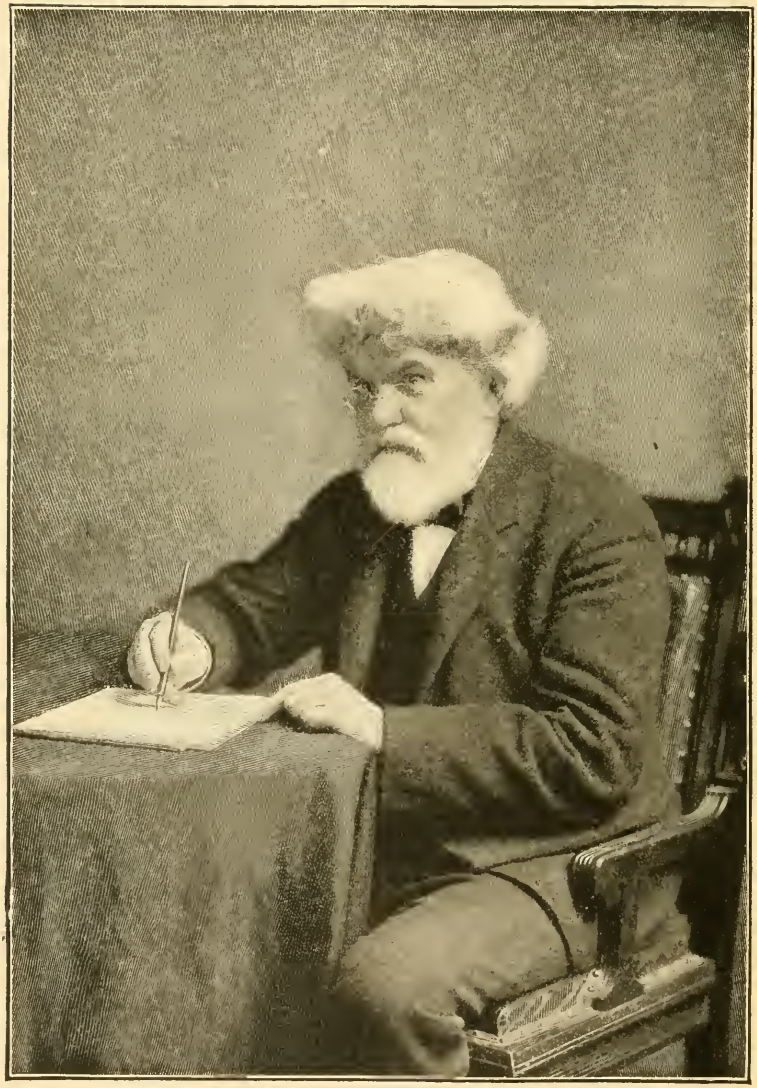

Edward Eggleston.

THE

NEW CENTURY HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

BY

EDWARD EGGLESTON

REVISED AND ENLARGED

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

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First Book in American History

New Century History of the United States

History of the United States and Its People

Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans
For Primary Grades

Stories of American Life and Adventure
For Grammar Grades

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PREFATORY NOTE

The preparation of this book was the last literary work that Edward Eggleston undertook. He was convinced that there was a peculiar need of such a book in all our schools, and it was a matter of special concern to him to supply it.

His purpose was to tell the story of our country so briefly that it might be mastered within the limited time allowed for its study in the schools, and yet to preserve the interest of the narrative unimpaired by too severe a condensation.

Especially he wished to preserve and to present those facts with respect to life conditions at various periods which he held to be even more essential to the history of a people than is the record of public events.

To no other of his books did he give a greater or a more conscientious care than to this. In no other did he feel a deeper interest, or an interest more completely unselfish.

He had finished the manuscript, in its first draft, when increasing infirmity of health compelled him to cease work forever. There was yet a good deal to be done upon the book in the way of revision and otherwise, in order to make it what he wanted it to be. He asked me to do that work for him, and I have done it with scrupulous care to carry

out his purpose in every detail, and especially to preserve his work untouched and unchanged in any of its essentials.

It was his purpose to write a preface to this book himself, but he was not spared to do so.

It is in love and reverence for his memory that I now introduce the volume with this note.

GEORGE CARY EGGLESTON.

CULROSS-ON-LAKE GEORGE,
September, 1903.

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FRONTISPIECE. From a photograph taken by Miss L. Bernie Gallaher, Washington, D. C.

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DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

CHAPTER I.

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

Legends of Early Discovery.—In the old romantic legends of the brave Norsemen who settled Iceland, it is related that as early as the year 1000 a Norse sailor, Leif, the son of Eric, sailed southwest from Greenland and discovered the coast of a new land. If the story is true, the coast found must have been that of the continent of America. In Wales, too, there is a tradition that about the year 1170 a Welsh prince named Madoc discovered a land west of Ireland, and founded a colony there, which was never again heard of.

Statue of Leif, in Boston

Even if these stories are true, the discoveries of Leif and Madoc led to nothing. If either or both of these sailors found the coast of America, people forgot all about it. America was not discovered to any profitable purpose until Columbus landed upon its shores in the year 1492. Even then nobody in all the civilized world knew or dreamed that an unknown continent on this side of the ocean had been discovered.

The Unknown Seas.—The mariner's compass was then in use, and so was the astrolabe, an instrument by which the captain of a ship at sea could calculate his latitude. But the use of these instruments was little understood. Sailors

at that time ventured only a little way out upon the great ocean which lay to the west of Europe. They feared to go farther for many reasons. They believed that the western ocean was covered with thick black fogs, that the water was boiling hot there, and many other fanciful things of a terrifying kind.

The Trade with the East.—But the trading nations of Eu-

The world as known in 1492

rope, and particularly the merchants of Venice and Genoa, carried on a rich traffic with the countries of central and eastern Asia, all of which they grouped together in their minds under the one name, India. Many years before that time a Venetian named Marco Polo had lived for thirty years in those Eastern lands, wandering from Persia all the way to Japan. On his return he had told glowing stories of the vast wealth of that region in gold, silks, cotton

fabrics, cashmeres, precious stones, spices, pepper, ivory, and other desirable merchandise.

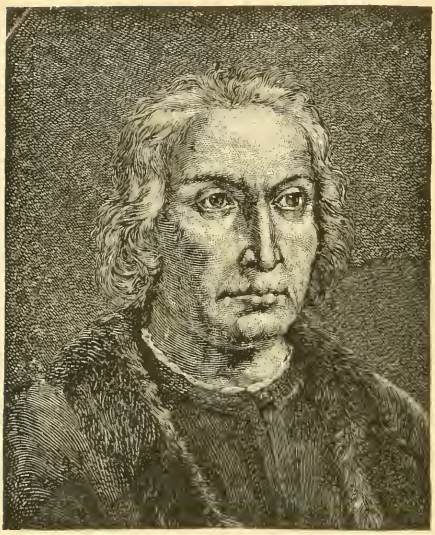
Marco Polo

In order to trade with countries so rich in the goods that Europe desired, the merchants of Venice and Genoa sent their ships to the most eastern ports of the Mediterranean and Black seas. There the ships met caravans from Persia, India, and other parts of the East richly laden with precious wares. But presently the half-savage Turks and Arabs, pushing their way towards Europe, began interfering with the caravan routes and plundering the caravans. This seriously interrupted the trade, and threatened to destroy it completely, so that the merchants of Europe sorely felt the need of finding some new and safer route by which to reach what they called India.

Portuguese Voyages.—In this search for a new route to India the Portuguese were the leaders. They were the boldest sailors of that age, and they hoped, by finding a new route, to take for themselves the commerce of Genoa and Venice. Little by little they extended their voyages along the west coast of Africa, hoping to find a way through or round that continent into the Indian Ocean. It took them seventy years to do this, but at the end of that time they had accomplished it. They had found and rounded what we now know as the Cape of Good Hope. The route thus discovered was very long, however, and there was one sailor in Europe who believed that he could find a shorter way.

Christopher Columbus.—This sailor was a Genoese named Christopher Columbus.* He had sailed along all the coasts of western Europe to the far north lands. It is believed that he had also made several voyages in Portuguese ships along the coast of Africa. His brother, at any rate,

* For biography, see Appendix.



Christopher Columbus

had done so. Columbus was one of the comparatively few people who at that time believed the earth to be round. The general belief was that it was flat, and that if one should sail too far west on the ocean, he would come to the edge of the world, and fall off. Believing the world to be round, Columbus was sure that he could reach India by sailing to the west. Thinking the earth to be somewhat smaller than it is, and Asia to be much larger, he supposed that eastern Asia lay about three thousand miles west of Europe. He knew nothing of this great continent of ours, and supposed that the Atlantic Ocean reached from western Europe to eastern Asia.

Columbus was anxious to make a voyage westward in search of the Indies, but to do that he must have ships and provisions, and he had no money with which to buy these things.

Columbus in Search of Patrons.—He first appealed to the king of Portugal, who gave him little encouragement. Indeed, wherever he went he succeeded only in convincing nearly everybody that he was a half-crazy fellow, possessed of a foolish notion. Men argued that if the world was, in fact, round, a ship that sailed down the side of it could never sail back again, because the return voyage would be all uphill. They argued that no people could live on the other side of the world, because if they did they must be upside down. All this seems very foolish to us

now, but in that day it seemed as plain as the simplest facts.

The king of Portugal was somewhat impressed by what Columbus said, but he was not willing to pay the large reward which Columbus asked for if he should find the Indies; so he tried to steal Columbus's idea. He secretly sent ships of his own to see if India did, in fact, lie on the other side of the Atlantic. This expedition went but a little way. The sailors quickly became discouraged and came back laughing at Columbus as a crack-brained dreamer.

Isabella to the Rescue.—Columbus went next to Ferdinand and Isabella, the king and queen of Spain, and laid his plan before them. They called a council of men who believed themselves to be far wiser than any mere sailor could be. This council considered the matter, and reported that nothing could be more foolish than the Genoese sailor's idea. They proved its absurdity and impossibility so conclusively that after long waiting Columbus was dismissed.

While waiting for an answer he had spent all the money he had, and had become a laughingstock in the streets. But Queen Isabella with some of her friends was inclined to believe that there might be something in his project. She sent for him at the last moment, and offered him the help he needed.

Columbus Sails.—At last Columbus had an opportunity to test his own theory. Equipped with three little ships scarcely bigger than fishing smacks of our time, two of them being in part open boats, he sailed from Palos (pah-lōs), Spain, in August, 1492. He had ninety men with him. His ships were the "Santa Maria" (sahn-tah mah-ree'ah), the "Pinta" (peen-tah), and the "Niña" (neen-yah). The Canary Islands lay in his course, and Columbus was delayed there a brief time.

When he set out to sail farther west the courage of his sailors failed. As they found themselves going farther and farther out on an unknown sea, their fears increased. They

threatened to throw Columbus overboard and turn back, but he managed to hold them in check, concealing from them the distance they had come. After weeks of sailing to the west and southwest, a sailor one night saw a light, and early the next morning land was in sight. This was on the 12th of October, 1492. There was the wildest joy on the ship. The men who had hated Columbus and threatened to kill him now revered him.

Santa Maria

Columbus went ashore with many of his men, and set up a large cross as a sign that he took possession of the land for Spain. His landing was on an island which he named San Salvador (sahn sahl′vah-dōr), or Holy Savior, because that was the Church name of the day on which he landed.

Columbus's Return.—The island upon which Columbus landed was one of the smallest in that part of the West Indies which we now call the Bahama Islands. It was inhabited by people who wore no clothes of any kind, and who lived in the rudest manner. After sailing among the Bahamas for a time, Columbus went on southward, discovering Cuba and Haiti, and losing one of his ships by wreck and another by desertion. As he had then only one little ship, he left a part of his men on what is now the island of Haiti, to which he gave the name of Hispaniola.

As he had sailed westward about three thousand miles, he set out on his return voyage in the full belief that the lands he had discovered were islands near the eastern coast of Asia. That belief he carried with him to his grave, never knowing or dreaming that he had found a new world. His return voyage was begun early in 1493. He took with him a little gold, some fruits and birds of the new land, and some of the inhabitants of

the islands. He was received by Ferdinand and Isabella with the greatest honor, and the crowds who once jeered at him for a fool now applauded the great discoverer, taking off their hats, and bowing low in reverence as he passed through the streets.

Columbus's Later Voyages.—In September, 1493, with a large expedition he sailed again for the West. During this voyage he planted a colony on Hispaniola, and discovered Jamaica, Porto Rico, and several smaller islands to the east. During his third voyage, in the year 1498, he saw a small part of the American continent near the mouth of the Orinoco River; and on his fourth and last voyage (1502-1504) he reached the mainland in what we now call Honduras and Nicaragua. Still believing that he had reached the coast of Asia, he thought this part of the continent was the Malay Peninsula. As he failed to bring back to Spain the gold and precious stones, and the rich fabrics of the East for which the Spanish merchants were greedy, Columbus fell into disgrace, and died at last in poverty.

Lands discovered by Columbus

Summary.—1. Possible early discoveries of America by Northmen and Welsh led to no useful result.

2. In the fifteenth century Turks threatened the caravan routes over which a rich trade passed between Europe and India, and thus prompted search for a new trade route.

3. Columbus, believing the earth to be round, thought he could find a shorter sea route by sailing directly westward.

4. After many years of waiting he obtained three little ships with which he set out from Palos.

5. After sailing westward to about the point where he expected to find Asia, he discovered some islands, October 12, 1492, which he believed lay close to the coast of Asia, but which were really a part of the West Indies in America.

6. Later he made three more voyages to the West Indies, and landed on the mainland of South and Central America, but he died in his mistaken belief that he had discovered parts of Asia.

Collateral Reading.—Irving's "Life of Columbus," Stratford edition, 52-84; Seelye's "Story of Columbus," 25, 40-42, 46, 59-62, 105-106.

CHAPTER II.

THE INDIANS.

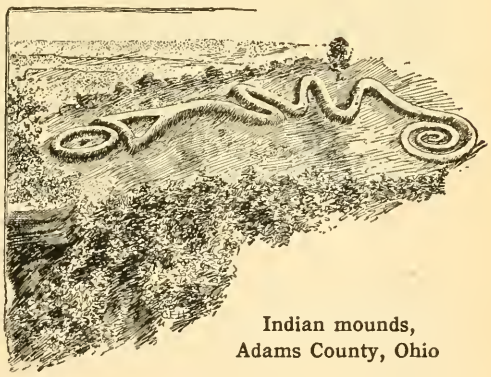
Indian warrior

The First Americans.—The continent which Columbus had discovered, although nobody in Europe, Asia, or Africa knew of its existence, was already inhabited by a people who had lived there for hundreds, and probably for thousands, of years. Whence they came, and how they got here, nobody has ever yet been able to find out. Columbus called them Indians because he believed this country to be India. They did not belong to any of the known races of mankind. They were not white like the Europeans, or black like the Africans, or yellow like the Malays and Chinese. Their skins were of a dirty copper color. Their hair was thick, straight, coarse, and intensely black in color. Their eyes were small and black, their noses prominent and their cheek bones unusually high. They had little or no beard. They were tall, slender, lean, and very muscular.

The Indian Tribes.—There were never more than a few hundred thousand of these Indians within the mainland of the United States. They lived and wandered about in tribes of a few hundred each. Sometimes several tribes joined together for defense, or for the plunder of other tribes, but each tribe was ruled by its own sachem in time of peace, and by its own chief in time of war.

The Indian Nations.—East of the Mississippi the Indians formed three great groups of allied tribes, sometimes called nations. The Iroquois lived in what is now New York, a part of Canada, and parts of the South. The Algonquins held most of Canada and the greater part of the present United States north of Tennessee and east of the Mississippi. The Muscogees, or Muskokees, held the region now constituting our Gulf States. The Muskokees were the most advanced of all the Indians in the art of making things, but the Iroquois were the most skillful in war. West of the Mississippi the greater part of our country was occupied by the Dakota, Shoshone, and Apache nations.

The Higher Tribes.—The Indians of Mexico and Peru were much more nearly civilized than any other American tribes. But in a history of the United States we need not concern ourselves with them. It was once supposed that the curious "Indian mounds" found in the Mississippi valley were the work of an earlier and higher race of men, but it is now pretty well settled that the mound builders were none other than the Indians themselves, and that the Indians were the only inhabitants of this country before the white man came.



Indian mounds, Adams County, Ohio

Indian Ways of Living.—The habits of the Indians were those of savages who lived mainly upon what grew wild, and what they could get from the woods and streams. They did, indeed, raise a few beans, squashes, and pumpkins, and a little corn among trees which they had killed by burning off the bark. The work of cultivating these

things, like most other work among the Indians, was done by the women. As a true savage the "Big Indian," as he called himself, thought it beneath his dignity to do much but hunt and fight.

Indian Tools and Farming.—For tools the Indians used bones, sticks, sharp stones, and the like. Their cooking utensils, when they had any, were usually wooden vessels,

Indians at home

hollowed out by burning. In these they heated water by dropping hot stones into it. They roasted their green corn in the ashes without removing the husks. They beat the hard corn into a coarse meal, in rude wooden mortars, using stones for pestles. They baked their bread in the fire, and roasted their meat over the fire or before it when they were not too careless to cook at all. Often they ate their food raw. They made fire by rubbing dry sticks together until the wood ignited from the friction. They did this often by using a bowstring with which to turn one

Making a fire

stick very rapidly while holding it in contact with another.

Indian Manufactures.— Some of the Muskokees had learned to make a coarse kind of cloth. Some other tribes, chiefly in the far Southwest, made rude pottery. In the region where copper is found they sometimes fashioned that soft metal into hatchets. But they knew nothing of the art of working iron.

The Canoe. — The most notable product of Indian skill was the canoe. This was of two kinds. Some tribes fashioned it out of a log, which they hollowed out by burning the top surface and scraping off the charred parts with shells or sharp stones. This was a slow and laborious way of working, but these log canoes when finished served their purpose well, and sometimes were large enough to carry thirty or forty men. The Northern tribes made a much more beautiful canoe out of birch bark, which they stretched over a light framework of the shape they desired, and made watertight by the use of gums. These canoes were graceful in shape, and so light that they could be carried easily from one water to another. Indeed, the

Birch canoe

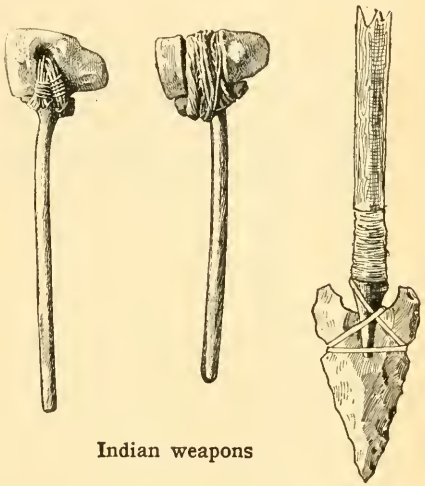
birch bark canoe is the one product of Indian handiwork that white men have never been able to improve either in beauty of form or in usefulness.

The Clothing and Decorations of the Indians.—The Eastern Indians clothed themselves mostly in deer skin. A whole deer skin was thrown about the shoulders, a strip of the same material was wound around the loins, and leggings, worn in winter, were made of it. The Northern tribes wore beaver skins and other thick furs wrapped about them. In the South the Indians wore a garment woven of the fiber of the plant which we call Spanish bayonet. The women wore deer-skin aprons. Their shoes or moccasins were made of deer skin, sometimes embroidered and ornamented with porcupine quills or shell beads. Indian warriors were fond of decorating themselves in hideous ways. They painted red, yellow, and blue stripes and spots upon their faces, and some of them wore the claws of animals and birds of prey as ornaments. In Virginia, Indians sometimes fastened living snakes to their ears and wore the hand of a dead enemy in the same way. The object of all this was to terrify the Indian's enemy.

Both men and women in certain tribes decorated themselves with beads made of sea shells. These were called wampum, and were worn in strings, belts, necklaces, and bracelets. Wampum was also used for money and for presents in making treaties between tribes or with white men. The treaty belts usually had upon them rude pictures that served in place of writing.

Indian Weapons.—Before white men came to this country the chief weapon of the Indians was the bow and arrow. The arrow was pointed with a sharpened flint, a bit of deer's horn, the sharp spur of a wild turkey, the claw of an eagle, or a splinter of bone. Besides the bow and arrow the Indians used war clubs or battle-axes made by fastening a stone to a handle. Sharpened stones and shells were also used for knives, but when white men came with steel

knives and hatchets and guns, the Indians quickly quit making their own rude weapons and tools, and bought better ones from the white man, giving furs and the like in exchange.



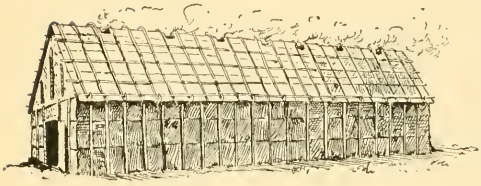
Indian weapons

The Indian House.—The Indians in the East built rude houses of bark. In the South they used palmetto leaves. In the prairie regions where trees were scarce the Indian house or wigwam was made by setting up a circle of poles, leaning them together at the top, and covering them with skins. In the far Southwest the houses were built of adobe or sun-dried mud. These houses were very large, some of them rising to five stories in height. A whole village usually lived in a single building. Such a building came, therefore, to be called by the Spanish *pueblo*, which means village. The Indians inhabiting such houses were called pueblo Indians, or village Indians. In the North the Iroquois often built their bark houses so large and long that twenty or more families could dwell in one of them.

Wigwam

Clans.—The Indians were grouped in clans or families descended from the same grandmother or great-grandmother. Each clan was named after some animal, bird, or reptile, which was supposed somehow to look after the fortunes of the clan. Each clan

had a rude drawing of its particular animal, bird, or reptile, which served as a sort of coat of arms. This picture was called a totem, and the members of each clan were called by the name of their totem—the Turtles, the Eagles, etc. All the families living in one house were of one clan. When an Indian wished to marry he must go to some other clan for a wife, and when he married he became a member of his wife's clan.



Iroquois house

Indian Religion.—The Indian was exceedingly superstitious. He had many ways of appeasing evil spirits, and especially the spirits of the animals he had killed, for he believed that both animals and men live again after death. But before the discovery of America he had little that could properly be called a religion.

Torture and Running the Gantlet.—In war the Indians were treacherous and cruel in the extreme, though in peace they were to be trusted. They tortured their prisoners in

Running the gantlet

ways too shocking for description. Sometimes they made a frolic for themselves and gave a prisoner a chance of life by making him "run the gantlet." Indians armed with clubs and stone axes formed themselves in two lines near together, and the prisoner was required to run through the lane thus made between them, while each Indian struck at him with his club or battle-axe. Sometimes the prisoner was beaten to death before going half the distance, but often he escaped; and if he got through the lane with life still in him, he was suffered to go free.

Summary.—1. Columbus gave the name of Indians to the natives of the country he discovered.

2. There were probably never more than a few hundred thousands of Indians in what is now the main part of the United States. They were organized into widely separated tribes, each governed by its own sachem in time of peace and by its own chief in time of war.

3. The Muskokees and the Iroquois were the most advanced tribes within what is now the United States.

4. The Indians were tall, slender, lean, and very muscular. They were copper-colored, with black, coarse hair and small eyes, high cheek bones, and prominent noses. They lived in villages, and made their houses of bark, deer skins stretched on poles, palm leaves, or dried mud.

5. They did not know how to use iron, but made their tools and weapons of stones, shells, deer horns, and the like. Their principal weapons were bows and arrows. They made canoes of logs and of birch bark.

6. They raised a little corn and a few vegetables in a rude way. They cooked their food in wooden vessels or over the fire. Often they ate it raw.

7. Their clothing consisted mainly of skins and furs. For adornment they stained their faces and wore beads, animals' teeth and claws, feathers, and shells.

8. The Indian's religion was little more than a belief in charms and spells.

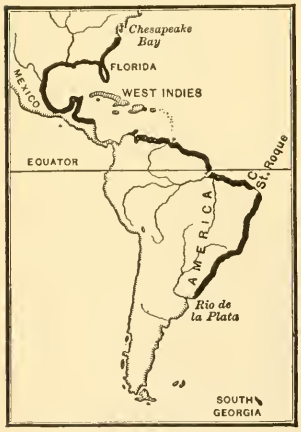
9. The Indian was a savage. He loved war, and delighted in killing and torturing his enemies, but in peace he kept his promises, and was a trusty friend.

Collateral Reading. — Dodge's "Our Wild Indians," 185-193; Bancroft's "History of the United States," II., 418-433; McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," I., 6-8.

CHAPTER III

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

Americus Vespucius.—The discoveries made by Columbus awakened great curiosity to know more of the New World. Other adventurers quickly set out to see what more there was to be found beyond the seas. Americus Vespucius* was a Florentine merchant who had removed to Spain a short time before Columbus sailed on his first voyage. In 1497, and again in 1499, Vespucius was with expeditions from Spain that discovered parts of America. It was seventeen months before the first of these expeditions got back to Spain, and the explorers are now believed to have reached the coasts of Mexico and Florida, and even to have sailed north as far as the Chesapeake Bay during the summer of 1498. Vespucius made a third voyage to the western continent in 1501 in the service of Portugal. He landed on Cape San Roque in South America, and explored the coast southward nearly to the Plata.



Lands discovered by Vespucius

The voyages of Vespucius and the written accounts he gave of his discoveries aroused interest in Europe, and a German geographer suggested that the land he had explored should be called America in his honor. This land, South America, was supposed to be a continent lying south of Asia, for even yet the notion that Asia lay only about three thousand miles west of Europe was hardly questioned. On maps of that time the name America was given only to what is now Brazil, but it came later to be applied to all of South America, and finally to the whole western world.

* For biography, see Appendix.

Voyages of John Cabot.—Though Columbus had found few gold mines or spices or other sources of wealth, John Cabot,* a Venetian merchant who lived in Bristol, England, hoped for better fortune for himself. He laid his plans before Henry VII., king of England, and received permission to make a voyage of discovery at the expense of some Bristol merchants. He set out in May, 1497—the year of Vespucius's first voyage—with one ship and eighteen men.

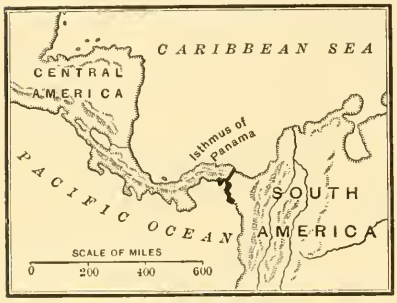
Lands discovered by the Cabots

On June 24 he reached land. It lay far to the north of the islands discovered by Columbus, and was probably the coast of Labrador. Cabot is commonly said to have been the first person to reach the mainland of America. Upon his return to England honors were showered upon him, and he was everywhere greeted as the "Great Admiral." During the next year he made another voyage to the mainland, which he supposed to be the coast of China. On this voyage he was accompanied by his son Sebastian. After going far to the north he turned about and sailed down the coast possibly as far as North Carolina. Cabot, like Columbus, died in the belief that he had actually reached Asia.

Vasco da Gama.—During the same year in which Cabot made his first voyage, Vasco da Gama (dah gah-mah) sailed from Portugal down the coast of Africa. He rounded the Cape of Good Hope, crossed the Indian Ocean, and reached India at last. In 1499 he returned to Portugal, having his ships loaded with the coveted treasures of the East. For a while after this men ceased to care about sailing to the west. They had begun at last to suspect that the land discovered by Columbus was not a part of Asia.

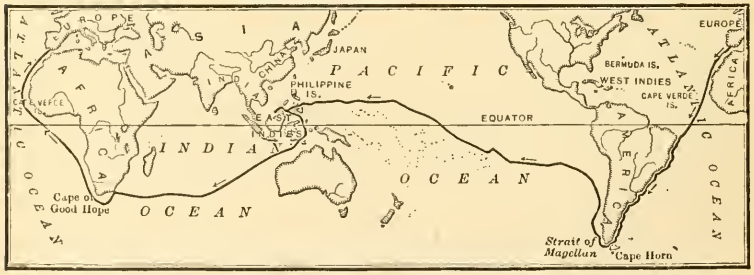
* For biography, see Appendix.

Balboa's Discovery.—In 1513 Balboa * (bahl-bo′ah), a bankrupt Spanish farmer of Hispaniola, who had fled to the Isthmus of Panama to escape from his creditors, discovered the Pacific Ocean. While making explorations on the Isthmus he was told that there was a great sea beyond the mountains, and that on its shores dwelt kings who had an abundance of gold and silver. Accompanied by a native guide and a party of Spaniards Balboa made his way across the Isthmus with great difficulty. He went in advance of his men, ascended a high peak, and saw far below him the outspread waters of the ocean which we now call the Pacific. Balboa named it the South Sea.



Balboa's discovery

Magellan's Great Voyage.—Magellan * (ma-jel′an), a Portuguese navigator who voyaged to the East Indies by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and afterwards had entered the service of Spain, sailed in 1519 with five vessels to search



First voyage around the world

for a southwest route to China and India. Going along the coast of South America, he succeeded in passing through the straits that now bear his name. Magellan sailed across

* For biography, see Appendix.

the Pacific and was killed in the Philippine Islands, but one of his ships succeeded in reaching Spain again by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and was thus the first ship that ever sailed round the world.

Continued Search for Another Passage.—After the voyage of Magellan's ship it ought to have been clear that the western route to the Indies was too long for profitable trade uses. The shorter way was round the Cape of Good Hope, but the idea seemed fixed in men's minds that there must be some shorter western way, and for a hundred years afterwards navigators were going up one river after another on the Atlantic side of America, confidently expecting to find a way through the continent.

The English had the idea that the shortest route to Asia must be through a northwest passage. An earnest search for this passage began with the first voyage of Sir Martin Frobisher in 1576. After that time more than a hundred expeditions were sent out by sea and land on this fruitless errand. People seem to have thought that the finding of such a passage was, in the words of a man of the time, "the only thing of the world that was left undone whereby a man might become famous and fortunate."

Motives of the Explorers.—It is not fair to think that the bold mariners who risked and often lost their lives in efforts to find routes to the land of gold and spices were wholly bent on money making. It was a time when men were seeking to learn what they could about the world they lived in. They went east and they went west to satisfy their curiosity and their love of adventure. The dangers they encountered only added in their eyes to the poetry of life. Travelers and explorers left their bones to whiten on every strand, and he who was so fortunate as to get home in safety to tell of the marvels he had seen was a hero in the eyes of all men.

Summary.—1. Americus Vespucius in 1497 and the succeeding years made four voyages to America, which he described in published letters. America was named for him.

2. John Cabot, in the service of England, sailed to the coast of America in 1497, and again during the next year. Like Columbus, he died in the belief that he had reached Asia.

3. Da Gama sailed round the Cape of Good Hope in 1498, and came back bearing rich cargoes from the East.

4. Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean in 1513, and called it the South Sea.

5. Magellan sailed through the strait that bears his name in 1520, and was killed in the Philippine Islands. One of his five ships sailed completely round the world.

6. For a hundred years afterwards mariners continued to search for another passage through America.

Collateral Reading. — Bancroft's "History of the United States," I., 8-12; Andrews's "History of the United States," I., 10, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 25, 26; Higginson's "Young Folk's Book of American Explorers," 3-9.

CHAPTER IV

EXPLORATION AND ATTEMPTS AT SETTLEMENT

Discovery of Florida.—Among those who were with Columbus on his second voyage was Ponce de Leon (pon′-thā dā lā-ōn′). He was made governor of Hispaniola, and afterward of Porto Rico. In 1513 with three little vessels he set out in search of a land which was said to contain a wonderful fountain having power to give perpetual youth to those who bathed in its waters. The little fleet sighted the mainland on Easter Sunday, and Ponce de Leon took possession of the country in the name of the King of Spain. He called it Florida from Pascua Florida, the Spanish name for Easter Sunday. Several years later he went again to Florida, carrying with him a company of settlers. In a battle with the natives Ponce de Leon was wounded by a poisoned arrow. Many of his men were killed, and in despair he went with the survivors to Cuba, where he soon afterwards died of his wounds.

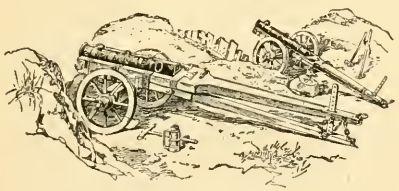
The Narvaez Expedition.—In April, 1528, Narvaez (nar-vah′eth) landed in Apalachee Bay, on the west coast

of Florida. He thought that here might be almost anywhere in America rich empires, like that which Cortez had recently conquered in Mexico. Sending his little fleet to explore the coast westward, Narvaez with most of his men marched into the interior in search of such empires.

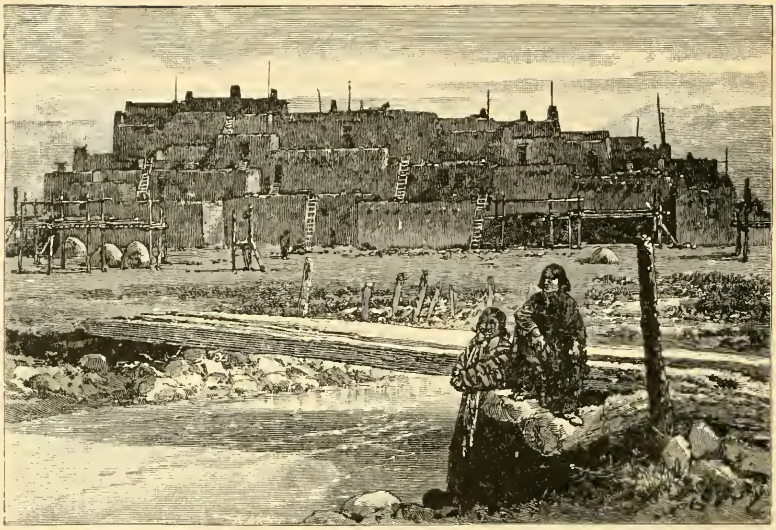
Spanish soldier

He found only a wild, wooded country and savage people, and after great hardships he returned to the coast. His ships had not come back, and Narvaez labored for two months in building five frail boats to take their places. Two of these boats were lost, and three were driven on the shores of Louisiana or Texas. All but four of the men died of starvation or disease, or were killed by the Indians. Only a man named Vaca, two sailors, and a negro slave survived. These wandered about for eight long years, suffering great hardships. At last they reached the Gulf of California and finally fell in with some Spaniards, and made their way to the city of Mexico.

The Spanish Expeditions to Cibola.—There was an old European tradition that many years earlier a bishop of Lisbon had built seven cities on an island in the Atlantic, far west of Portugal. The Spaniards in Mexico were told by the Indians that somewhere to the northward there were seven cities. When Vaca told them of the great extent of land to the northward, they sent Brother Marcos, a missionary priest, to explore this land and search for the seven cities. During a journey of three months his little company were frequently told by the Indians about the



Spanish cannon



Ancient Pueblo

seven cities of which they were in search. At last they came upon a Zuñi pueblo called Cibola, but the Indians attacked the party in advance, and killed some of them. Brother Marcos was obliged to content himself with viewing the "city" from the top of a hill nearby. He then returned to Mexico to tell of the city he had discovered in which the houses were built of stone, and were several stories in height.

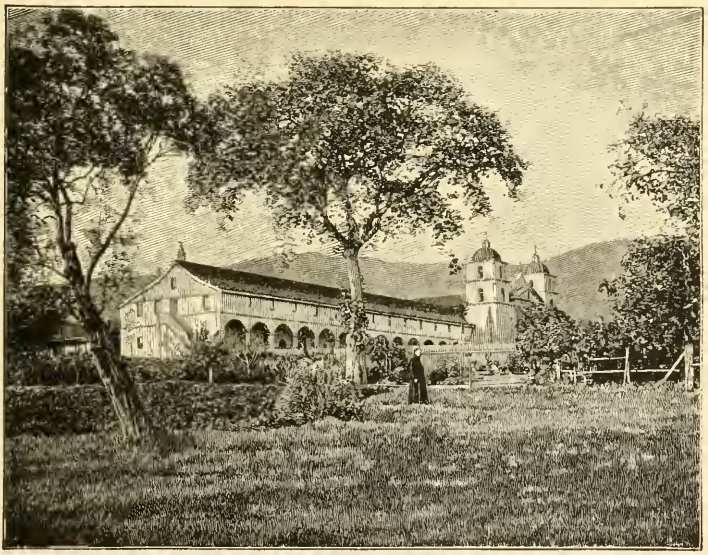
Coronado's Exploration.—During the next year the Viceroy of Mexico sent Coronado with an army of Spaniards and Indians to conquer the Land of the Seven Cities of Cibola. Marcos acted as guide. Disappointment met Coronado on every hand. The splendid city which Marcos had described in glowing terms proved to be only a pueblo of a few hundred people, and the other "cities" were much like it. As Coronado understood the Indians, there was farther on another city, called Quivira, where everything was of pure gold. He eagerly set out in search

of this city, and went as far north as the present State of Kansas, only to find when he got there that the tribe called Quiviras were savages, living in straw-covered huts, with no knowledge of gold.

Coronado led his army about from place to place for two years in further search for rich cities. He found none, of course, but he traversed Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Kansas, and Colorado. Spanish priests afterwards went into this region and established missions among the Indians, one of the earliest of which (1605) was at Santa Fé.

De Soto's Expedition.—The most famous expedition into the interior in search of countries like Mexico and Peru, abounding in gold, was led by De Soto. He had been governor of Cuba, and was now authorized to conquer the mainland to the north.

In May, 1539, he landed on the west coast of Florida with nearly six hundred men and many horses. About the



Santa Barbara Mission

middle of July he set out on a toilsome march through Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. He treated the Indians cruelly, compelling them to serve him as slaves, and robbing them to feed his men. Some he killed without excuse, thus provoking attacks upon himself in return. He pushed on and on in spite of all difficulties in a determined effort to find a land abounding in gold.

Spanish armor

In 1541 De Soto reached the Mississippi River, near the present site of Memphis. He called it The Great River. He crossed and recrossed the stream many times in his search for a land of gold, and finally, with his force much reduced, he set out for the mouth of the river, intending to build vessels there and send to Cuba for aid; but in May, 1542, he died of a fever. His body, wrapped in blankets filled with sand, was sunk in the Mississippi to prevent its falling into the hands of the Indians. A few of his men finally reached the Gulf in boats they had built, and at last got to the Spanish settlements in Mexico.

Spanish Claims.—Thus by 1542 many Spaniards had traversed the southern parts of our country, and by their explorations Spain had acquired a claim to that region from Florida to California, and as far north as Tennessee and Kansas.

Early French Explorations.—While the Spaniards were vainly searching in the south for gold and for rich cities to plunder, thrifty French fishermen were drawing wealth from the sea on the Newfoundland fishing banks, and carrying on a lucrative trade in furs with the Indians along the neighboring shores.

Thus France also was interested in the New World, and in 1524 the French king sent an expedition under Verazano (ver-rah-tsah'no) to America to discover the longed-for passage through the continent to Asia. Verazano explored the coast from North Carolina to New Hampshire, and is now

thought to have been the first European to enter the Hudson River. The French afterwards made this voyage, as the English made the voyage of the Cabots, the basis of a claim to a great part of North America.

Jacques Cartier.—Ten years after the voyage of Verazano the French king sent another expedition, this time under Jacques Cartier (zhahk car-tyā), to continue the

Spanish North America

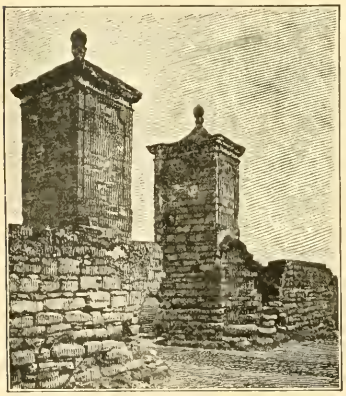
search for a northwest passage through the continent. Cartier examined the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador, and entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He then returned to France to give an account of his discoveries.

The next year he sailed again, hoping for better success. He entered the St. Lawrence River, and sailed up as far as Quebec, where the Indians had a village. The chief of the tribe was not willing that the white men should go farther, so he dressed some of his men to look like devils, and told Cartier that they had been sent by a god who lived higher

up the river to warn the white men back. Cartier was not afraid of devils, however, and so he pushed on up the river in small boats till he reached a fortified Indian town on an island. Behind the town was a high hill with steep sides, to which Cartier gave the name Montreal, which means royal mountain.

Nothing was done by France toward following up these discoveries until 1541. Cartier was then again sent out, in company with Roberval, and a settlement was made at Quebec. This was wholly given up within two years.

The Huguenot Colonies.—For twenty years after this nothing more was attempted by the French in America, but in 1562 Coligny (co-lee-nee), the leader of the Huguenots, or Protestants of France, sent out a party of explorers under Ribault (ree-bo) to found a colony in America in which French Protestants might be free from the persecutions which they suffered in their native land. Ribault built a little town at a harbor on the coast of what is now South Carolina, and named it Port Royal. He left thirty men to hold the place, while he went back for more colonists and fresh supplies. The little company fell into trouble, and during the following year the few survivors of the colony returned to Europe. But in 1564 a second colony of Huguenots under Laudonnière (lo-do-ne-êr) was sent over, and a fort was built on the St. Johns River in Florida. It was called Fort Caroline, in honor of King Charles of France.

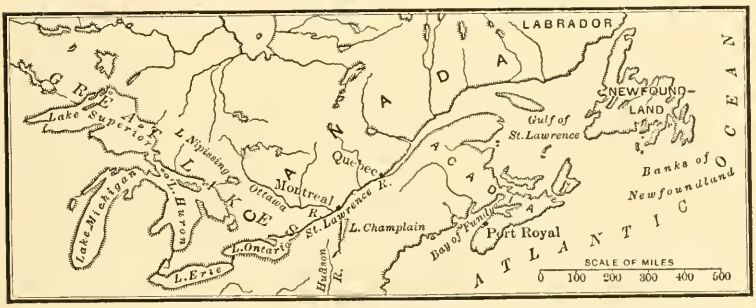


Old Spanish gateway, St. Augustine

St. Augustine Founded.—When news of this Protestant intrusion upon Spanish territory reached Spain it excited great indignation, and Menendez (ma-nen′deth), a dis-

tinguished Spanish officer, was sent to drive the French out of Florida. Menendez built a fort (1565) which was the beginning of St. Augustine, the first permanent town in what is now the main part of the United States. He then attacked and overcame the colony at Fort Caroline, and put nearly everybody there to death.

The Frenchmen's Revenge.—About three years later De Gourges (d'goorg) sailed at his own expense with a small force to avenge the slaughter of his countrymen. He took the fort the Spaniards had built on the site of Fort Caroline,



Canada and Acadia

and hanged for murder everybody there who fell into his hands alive.

Settlement of Acadia.—After the destruction of the Huguenot colony in Florida nearly forty years passed before the French made further serious efforts to plant settlements in America. At the end of the sixteenth century under fur-trading grants several French expeditions visited the region about the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In 1603 Henry IV. chartered a fur-trading company for Canada, which had been organized by De Monts. The next year a colony was sent over to Acadia (Nova Scotia). The first settlement was given up after a few years' struggle for existence, but a second attempt was made at Port Royal, and was more fortunate. This was the first permanent French settlement in America.

Settlement of Canada.—The real founder of the French power in America, however, was Champlain (sham-plain), the "Father of New France." He had visited the East Indies and Mexico, had ascended the St. Lawrence to the site of Montreal in 1603, and with De Monts had explored the coasts of Acadia and New England. In 1608 he laid the foundations of Quebec, which was the beginning of the real settlement of Canada.

During the following year, with a band of Canadian Indians, he discovered the beautiful lake which now bears his name, and on its banks fought a battle with the Iroquois of New York, which made those powerful Indians the inveterate enemies of the French. In 1615 he ascended the Ottawa River, and, descending the outlet of Lake Nipissing, discovered Lakes Huron and Ontario. He penetrated the region that is now central New York. In that year also he brought to Canada the first of the Catholic priests who afterwards established missions among the Indians, won their esteem, and rapidly carried French explorations throughout the regions of the Great Lakes and into the valley of the Mississippi.

Summary.—1. From 1513 to 1541, Spanish expeditions, under Ponce de Leon, Narvaez, Marcos, Coronado, and De Soto, explored the southern half of what is now the United States, and claimed all of that region.

2. The French, during that time, established the Newfoundland fisheries and the fur trade, and explored the St. Lawrence as far as Montreal.

3. Vain efforts were made to found French colonies in Carolina and Florida between 1562 and 1565. A permanent French colony was established early in the seventeenth century on the Bay of Fundy, and called Acadia.

4. Champlain founded Quebec (1608), discovered Lakes Champlain, Huron, and Ontario, and was the real founder of the French power in America.

Collateral Reading.—Parkman's "Pioneers of France in the New World," 5-13, 175-179, 271-283, 310-321; Parkman's "La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West," 7-9, 48-65, 230-257, 271-283.

CHAPTER V.

ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS

Hawkins and Drake.—By the year 1562 the Spanish adventurers had developed the rich gold and silver mines of Mexico and South America, and were sending to Spain immense quantities of the precious metals. At first they forced the Indians to work these mines, but the Indians

Drake viewing treasure taken from a Spanish ship

were unused to labor and died by thousands. Then negro slaves were brought over from Africa, and were in great demand.

About this time two English mariners, John Hawkins and Francis Drake,* began carrying cargoes of negro slaves to the West Indies and to the Spanish Main, as the north coast of South America was then called, and selling them to the Spaniards.

* For biography, see Appendix.

On one of their trips Hawkins and Drake were treacherously attacked by the Spaniards, and barely escaped with their lives. In revenge for this attack, and with the secret approval of the English queen, Elizabeth, who soon afterward went to war with Spain, Drake made many voyages to the Spanish Main, ravaging the settlements and capturing the richly laden Spanish treasure ships.

Drake's Famous Voyage.—In 1577 Drake started on a voyage which made him famous. Passing through the Strait of Magellan, he surprised and attacked the Spanish settlements and vessels along the coasts of Chile and Peru, and carried off enormous treasure in gold and silver. In search of a passage back into the Atlantic he traced the coast to northern California, which he claimed for England and named New Albion. Thence he turned westward, crossed the Pacific, and reached England by way of the Cape of Good Hope in 1580. He was the first Englishman to sail round the globe. Queen Elizabeth visited his ship, the "Golden Hind," and on its deck knighted Drake for his exploits.

Frobisher and Gilbert.—Meanwhile Sir Martin Frobisher had made three voyages to America (1576-78) in search of a northwest passage to Asia, and had discovered the ice-bound Hudson Strait. In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert took a colony to Newfoundland, but returned at once, making no settlement there. One of Gilbert's ships was furnished by his half brother, Walter Raleigh.*

Raleigh's Exploring Party.—On the return voyage the ship in which Gilbert sailed went down with all on board. But Raleigh's interest in the colonization of America continued. He sent out two ships, commanded by Captains Amidas and Barlow, to explore. They reached the coast of what we now call North Carolina, landed, and took possession of the country for Queen Elizabeth. They spent about six weeks exploring the surrounding region. The Indians were friendly, and the white people won their hearts

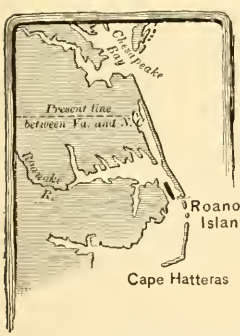
* For biography, see Appendix.

by giving them trinkets in exchange for skins. The fruitful land seemed a paradise, with grapevines growing everywhere on hills and in valleys, over every little shrub, and climbing even to the tops of tall cedars.

The report that these explorers carried home pleased Queen Elizabeth so much that she made Raleigh a knight, and named the new land Virginia, in honor of herself, as the virgin queen. The name was at first applied indefinitely to the whole region north of Florida.

Walter Raleigh

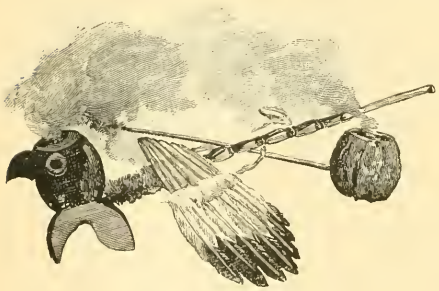
Raleigh's First Colony.— In the spring of the next year (1585) Raleigh sent over a colony of about one hundred men. Ralph Lane, a man of considerable ability, was made governor. A settlement was made on Roanoke Island, on the North Carolina coast, and the ships returned to England.



An Indian told Lane that the Roanoke River came out of a rock so near to the sea on the west that the waves sometimes broke over the rock and made the river salt. Lane believed the story, and set out with most of his men for the head of the river. Long before they got there their provisions gave out. They killed and ate their dogs, seasoning the meat with sassafras leaves to give it a relish. At last Lane turned back and went swiftly down the river to the island, just in time to save the whole colony from destruction at the hands of the Indians.

The Return to England.—Sir Francis Drake, returning from an expedition against the Spaniards, visited Roanoke Island to see how Raleigh's colonists fared. He gave them a ship and other things that they needed, and the homesick colonists determined to go back to England. They left their corn nearly ripe. Had there been wives and children in the colony, instead of only men, they might perhaps have stayed.

The Use of Tobacco.—Tobacco was taken to England by the men of this company. The English smoked it in the Indian fashion, drawing the smoke in at the mouth, and puffing it out through the nostrils. It was thought to be of the greatest benefit. There was hardly any disease that might not be cured by it, in their belief. Men, and even women, in their impatience to smoke, took the half of a walnut shell and made it the bowl of a pipe, using a straw for a stem.



Indian pipes

Raleigh's Second Colony.—Raleigh had learned a lesson from his first attempt, and when in 1587, in company with some merchants from London, he sent over another colony, women and children went along.

Soon after the colony landed on Roanoke Island a child was born to one Dare, and named Virginia. She was the grandchild of the governor, John White. Virginia Dare was the first English child ever born within the present limits of the United States.

Governor White went back to England for fresh supplies, and was detained there for three years by the great war with Spain. When at last he returned to America the colony had wholly disappeared. The colonists were never found.

Raleigh's means were by this time exhausted. He sold his interest in America to others.

Bartholomew Gosnold.—After the disappearance of Raleigh's second colony, and the failure of all attempts to find surviviors of it, no further effort was made to plant an English settlement in America till 1602. Then Bartholomew Gosnold sailed from England. He chose a more direct route than had been taken by others, and struck the coast of America at about Cape Cod, to which he gave its name. He landed on the island of Cuttyhunk, in Buzzards Bay, and built a house for the men he intended to leave as the beginning of a permanent settlement. But the men who were to stay refused to do so, and went back in the ship that had brought them.

Summary.—1. Hawkins and Drake, two English mariners, captured treasure ships of Spain. In 1577 Drake passed through the Strait of Magellan, seized enormous amounts of gold and silver along the coasts of Chile and Peru, wintered in California, and then sailed westward around the world. He reached England in 1580—the first English captain to sail around the globe.

2. Frobisher (1576-78) discovered Hudson Strait while seeking a northwest passage to Asia. Gilbert failed in an effort to found a colony in Newfoundland. His half-brother, Raleigh, made two attempts to found a colony in North Carolina. Queen Elizabeth named this region Virginia. All these colonists returned or disappeared.

3. Gosnold attempted a settlement near Cape Cod (1602). His colonists refused to remain.

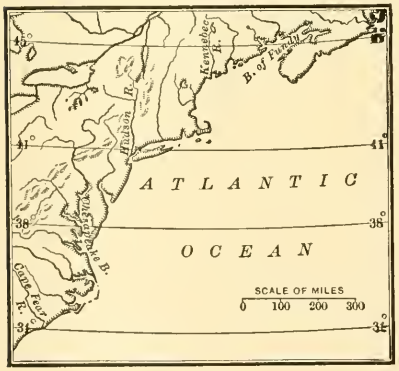
Collateral Reading.—Eggleston's "The Beginners of a Nation," 7-8; Bancroft's "History of the United States," I., 75-86.

SETTLEMENT

CHAPTER VI

VIRGINIA

The Virginia Company.—After Sir Walter Raleigh's failure two companies were organized in England to colonize America. One was composed of persons living in or near London. It was called the London Company, and later the Virginia Company; the other was called the Plymouth Company, from the residence of its members. In April, 1606, King James I. granted to each of these companies a charter right to plant colonies in what was then known as Virginia, which included the whole region between 34° and 45° north latitude in America. To each company he granted a territory extending for a hundred miles along the coast, and a hundred miles inland, together with the islands near the coast. The London Company was to plant its colonies between 34° and 41° north latitude, while the Plymouth Company had permission to settle anywhere between 38° and 45°. Thus the two grants overlapped each other, but to prevent trouble it was provided that the company which made its settlement last should not plant its colony within one hundred miles of a colony already planted by the other.



Virginia

The Popham Colony.—The London Company sent out its colony in December, 1606. During the following year the Plymouth Company sent its first colony under Captain George Popham. After spending the winter in Maine, near the Kennebec River, the colonists gave up the enterprise, and returned to England, having suffered, as they said, "extreme extremities."

The Jamestown Colony.—The colony sent out by the London Company suffered much also, but it stayed. It was the first English settlement that did so.

There were, of course, no steamships in those days, and the three vessels in which the colonists came were very small, and scarcely fit for use even in inland waters. The largest of them, called the "Susan Constant," was of only a hundred tons burden. The "Goodspeed," their next largest ship, was not half that size, and the smallest of the three was the little pinnace "Discovery," a vessel of only twenty tons burden.

It was December—a time of year when, in our day, even great steamships find the Atlantic well-nigh too rough for them—and these frail little vessels struggled for six weeks before getting out of sight of the English coast. After the fashion of that day, the little fleet, instead of sailing straight across the Atlantic, went far southward to the Canary Islands, and thence to the West Indies, where the colonists stopped to repair damages. When they left the West Indies they meant to land on Roanoke Island, but a storm drove them farther north, into a river which they named the James (see Map, p. 47). It was spring by that time, and the Virginia wild flowers were all in blossom.

The First Year at Jamestown.—This colony was made up of all sorts of discontented men, unfit for the work that lay before them. Unhappily they had no leader worthy of the name. It was now seed time, but instead of planting fields from which to gather a supply of food, the colonists sailed up and down the river, uncertain where to place their settlement. When at last they chose a place,

it was too late to plant a crop, and they had nearly eaten up their supply of food. They made their settlement, which they called Jamestown, on an unwholesome peninsula, which has since become an island. The settlers lived in hovels and in sorry tents, some of them even in holes dug in the ground. There was constant danger of attack by the Indians, and one third of the men were kept on watch every night. The watch lay on the bare ground in a kind of swamp. Such exposure and other hardships brought serious illness upon the underfed men, and sometimes not five men in the whole colony were able to bear arms. It was not long before one half of them had died. The rest at last began to get better food from the Indians, and they gradually regained their strength. They built themselves better homes, and thatched their roofs with sedge and wild grasses. Early in 1608, and again in the autumn, ships arrived from England with more colonists, bringing the total number up to two hundred.

Captain John Smith

John Smith.—By this time, too, the colonists had begun to fall under control of a leader fit to command. This was a young man named John Smith,* who had seen many adventures in many lands, and who had been one of the original settlers at Jamestown.

Smith sailed up and down the various rivers of Virginia in the pinnace "Discovery," exchanging beads and trinkets for corn, with which he kept the Jamestown people from starving. On a voyage up the Chickahominy River two of his men were killed, and he himself was taken prisoner by the Indians. Powhatan (pow-ha-tan′), the head chief of about thirty tribes, finally set Smith free, and sent him back to Jamestown. The young man was the first who explored Chesapeake Bay. He quickly

*For biography, see Appendix.

POCAHONTAS.
Matoaks als Rebecka daughter to ye
mighty Prince Powhatan Emperour of
Attanoughkomouck als virginia conv
erted and baptized in ye Christian
faith, and wife to ye worsh. Mr Joh. Rolfe
Ao 1616

became the leading man in the new settlement, and was made president of the colony.

Pocahontas.—Powhatan had a daughter named Pocahontas. She was about ten years old when Smith, who was of romantic temper, described her as beautiful; and many years afterwards he declared that it was she who had rescued him from death among the Indians. He said that Powhatan had ordered him slain, but that just as the war club was about to descend upon his head the little girl threw her arms about his neck, and pleaded for his life until her father relented and set him free. This conduct of Pocahontas was entirely in accord with Indian usage, but the incident has been discredited by some historians because Smith did not mention it in his first account of his adventures.

War club

More Colonists.—In 1609 a fleet of nine vessels, with a large company of colonists, was sent out under Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Somers to strengthen the colony at Jamestown. Two of the ships were wrecked in the Bermudas, and both Gates and Somers were left there. It would have been better for Jamestown if the rest of the company had shared the fate of their companions, for the newcomers were an injury rather than a benefit to the colony. They would not work, yet they must eat. They were led by two men who were old enemies of John Smith, and were now disposed to give him all the trouble

Captain Smith's pistol

they could. Smith was disabled by an accidental explosion of gunpowder, and went back to England on one of the returning ships.

The Starving Time.—The settlers had now not a man among them who could rule the colony well or keep on good terms with the Indians. They soon, therefore, got into trouble with their savage neighbors. The Indians lay in ambush near the settlement, and killed every colonist that ventured out of Jamestown. The colonists could buy no more corn of the unwilling savages. As spring approached, the scanty store of corn became exhausted and famine set in. The starving people ate the dogs and the horses that they had brought from England. They even ate rats and mice and snakes. This time of distress was always referred to as the "starving time." Some of the colonists got away in a pinnace and went back to England. Some were killed by the treacherous savages. Most of them died of sheer famine.

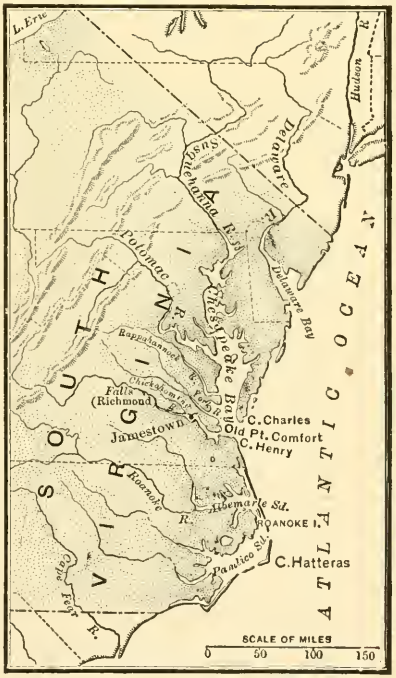
Gates and Somers Arrive.—The Bermudas were uninhabited at the time Gates and Somers were shipwrecked, and they were said to be haunted by fairies and devils. A writer of that times tells us that the fairies were great flocks of birds, and the devils only herds of hogs. On these the shipwrecked men lived well till the next spring. They then built two little vessels, which they named "Patience" and "Deliverance," of cedar from trees that grew on the islands, rigged them with sails from their wrecked ships, stocked them with salted pork and birds, and succeeded at last in reaching Jamestown.

Jamestown Abandoned.—In the autumn of 1609 there had been four hundred and ninety men in the Virginia Colony, but only sixty famine-smitten wretches remained alive when Gates and Somers arrived in the following

May. Had they got there a few days later there would have been nobody to greet them.

Gates had with him some provisions, salted meats, birds, and turtles, but not enough to last the colony for more than two or three weeks. There was no time for delay. English fishing vessels lay off Newfoundland, and with a lucky passage he might reach them before his provisions should give out. Crowding all the people on board his fleet of four little pinnaces, he set sail down the river from Jamestown, abandoning the settlement.

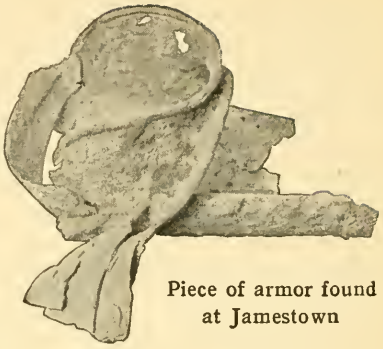
Jamestown Resettled.—Meantime the charter limits of the colony had been extended to four hundred miles along the coast, and thence west and northwest from sea to sea. Lord De la Warr had been appointed governor, and arrived in the James River (June, 1610) just in time to save the enterprise.



South Virginia by the charter of 1649

From men whom the colonists had stationed at the mouth of the river to give notice of the approach of Spaniards, De la Warr learned of the desperate situation of the colonists, and of Gates's purpose to leave. He sent his long boat up the river to turn the colonists back again. It was Sunday morning when De la Warr made his landing at Jamestown. He went to the little church and upbraided the people for the idleness that had brought such famine upon them. Lord De la Warr had

abundant supplies with him, and he had authority to rule the colony by martial law. The mortality continued. Lord De la Warr fell ill and went back to England.



Piece of armor found at Jamestown

Dale's Government.—During the next year Sir Thomas Dale was sent over to take charge of the Jamestown colony. For the next five years he ruled without pity for the idle or mercy for the lawless, and without much regard for the welfare of the people. His aim was to make the colony profitable to the company, whose agent he considered himself. His severity drove the colonists to despair. Some fled to the woods, and some tried to escape in little boats.

The Cause of Trouble.—The settlers in Virginia had been promised that after five years they should own their land and work for themselves; but seven years had passed, and the company still owned everything. Each man had from the common stock such food and clothing as it afforded, and all work was done for the company. An industrious man had no advantage over a man who spent his time in idleness. So no one cared to work much, and the colony was always near the point of starvation. In 1614 Dale gave some of those who had been in Virginia the longest the use of three acres apiece, and allowed them one month in a year to work their little patches for themselves. In return for this small privilege they were required to support themselves, and to give eleven months of their time each year to work for the "common stock." Even this small private interest was felt to be a benefit to the colony.

Tobacco plant

Tobacco.—By that time the people of Europe had come to use a great deal of tobacco. All of it was grown in Spain or in the Spanish colonies in the West Indies. John Rolfe, one of the Jamestown colonists, seeing the plant in the Indian fields round Jamestown, planted some of it in 1612, and was soon able to furnish a supply of it to English smokers and snuff takers. The climate and soil of Virginia were suited to tobacco, and it could be easily shipped from the farms which were all on the banks of rivers. In 1617 the very streets of Jamestown were planted with tobacco. It was in such demand in Europe that its price was very high. The people all went to cultivating tobacco instead of corn, the price of which was fixed by law, and presently they again came near starving from their neglect to grow grain. There was very little money in the colony, because it was forbidden to carry gold and silver away from the mother country; so people soon began to use tobacco for money.

Marriage of Rolfe and Pocahontas

The Lady Rebecca.—Dale had trouble with the Indians at first, and one Captain Argall thought it would help to hold them in check if Pocahontas, the daughter of the head chief, Powhatan, could be secured as a hostage. He bribed some Indians whom Pocahontas was visiting to give her up to him, and she was carried to Jamestown. She had played among the English while yet a child, and had always been friendly toward them. She was now a grown woman, and

after receiving baptism and a Christian name, Rebecca, she was married, in 1614, to John Rolfe, the Englishman who had first planted tobacco. She went to England with her husband two years later, where she was received with royal honors as a princess. She died in England, leaving an infant son, from whom several Virginia families are to-day proud to trace their lineage.

Argall's Government.—Dale was succeeded by Captain Argall, who had served under him and had shown much enterprise and ability. But no sooner was Argall made governor than he began to rob both the colony and the company. He seized everything within reach for his own profit and that of his partners in England, and the colony was almost ruined.

The Great Charter.—In 1618 a new movement in behalf of Virginia began in England. Auxiliary societies were formed to send out colonists and make settlements. In a year the population increased from less than four hundred to a thousand men. In order to establish a better government the company in London granted to Virginia (1618) a charter which gave the people a voice in making their laws, and limited the power of the governor. This document was called the "Great Charter." It provided for a governor and a council of state, to be chosen by the company in England, and a general assembly, to be elected by the colonists. Each settlement was to send two men to represent it in this general assembly. The "Great Charter" also gave the Virginians the right to divide the land into farms for private ownership. Sir George Yeardley was appointed governor to succeed Argall.

The First Assembly.—On July 30, 1619, the men who were chosen to represent the eleven settlements in Virginia met in the little church at Jamestown. This representative assembly was called the House of Burgesses, that is, of men each representing a burg, or borough, an old English name for a town.

With this assembly free government began in America.

The other colonies, afterwards formed, were organized more or less upon the same pattern, and from this beginning came the government of our country by a President, a Senate, and a House of Representatives, and of each of our States by a Governor, a Senate, and a House of Representatives.

The Importation of Wives.—At this time there were very few women and children in the colony. The company in England began to realize that the settlement must have more home makers, and in 1619 a shipload of young women were sent to Virginia to be married there.

A man who wished to marry one of these young women must first gain her consent, and then pay in tobacco the expense incurred in bringing her over. This was called "buying a wife." Ninety young women came at first, and more in 1621. The experiment proved successful. Men learned to love the country where they labored on their own land for their wives and children.

Landing of the young women in Virginia

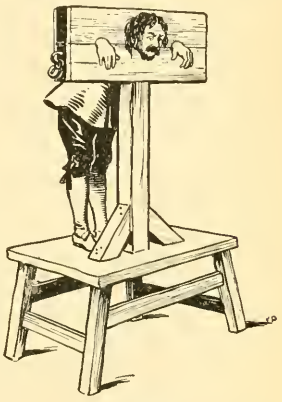
Slaves.—In 1619 a Dutch ship entered the river and came to anchor before Jamestown. The captain was forbidden to land. He then threatened to throw overboard some negro slaves that he had captured in the West Indies. He was short of food and water, and could not carry the negroes farther. The Jamestown authorities consented to buy the negroes. These were the first slaves in English America.

Indian Massacre of 1622.—By 1622 the colony numbered about four thousand people, and the plantations occupied most of the peninsula between the James and York rivers as far up as the site of Richmond. There were plantations, also, lining the south bank of the James. In the main, the Indians had been friendly since the marriage of Pocahontas, but her father, Powhatan, had recently died, and his brother, who had succeeded him as head chief, was far less friendly to the whites, and looked with jealousy upon the encroachments of their plantations upon his hunting grounds.

It needed little to fan his smoldering dislike into a blaze of hostility, and this was supplied by a fatal quarrel between an Indian and a settler. The quarrel led to a sudden attack by the Indians upon all the settlements in the spring of 1622. The white men were at work in the fields, and the Indians killed many of them with their own axes, hatchets, and hoes. Nearly one tenth of the colonists—men, women, and children—were cruelly butchered in a single day. This was the beginning of a bloody war, marked by many treacheries on both sides; but the Indians were finally so thoroughly subdued that they gave the colonists no further trouble for more than twenty years.

Virginia as a Royal Colony.—The "Great Charter" of 1618 was given to the colony, not by the king, but by the London Company. In 1624 King James I., having quarreled with the company, had its charter annulled by the courts. He then sent commissioners to Virginia to inquire into the affairs of the colony, but when they asked

to examine the public records, the Assembly firmly refused to give them up, and when the clerk of the House of Burgesses betrayed its secrets to the king's commissioners, the Assembly stood him in the pillory and cut off part of his ear. They passed a resolution that no tax should be levied upon the colony, without the consent of the people.



Pillory

King James died the next year, and the colonists sent ex-Governor Yeardley to England to assure the new king, Charles I., that they were his loyal subjects, and that they desired no change in their government. Yeardley succeeded so well in his mission that the king knighted him, and sent him back in 1626 as the royal governor, but permitted the people to retain their House of Burgesses. Virginia remained a royal province for one hundred and fifty years. The king appointed its governors and claimed the right to veto its laws, but the colonists elected a House of Burgesses to make its laws and levy its taxes.

Summary.—1. The first permanent English colony in America was planted by the London Company at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607.

2. The colonists suffered great hardships, and would have starved to death but for John Smith, who made friends of the Indians and procured corn from them.

3. Other colonists were sent to Jamestown in 1608 and in 1609. Smith returned to England, the colonists fell into trouble with the Indians and the starving time ensued. The few wretched survivors decided to return to England, when Lord De la Warr, who had been appointed governor, arrived with more colonists and supplies (1610).

4. In 1612 tobacco began to be cultivated, and became the staple and almost only product.

5. The first Representative Assembly in America met in 1619 in Jamestown. In the same year young women were brought from England to be wives for the settlers, and the first negro slaves were brought to the colony.

6. A terrible Indian massacre occurred in the spring of 1622. This

led to a war with the Indians, who were finally subdued, and gave the settlers no more trouble for over twenty years.

7. In 1624 the king annulled the charter of the London Company, and Virginia became a royal province, but the colonists were permitted to elect their House of Burgesses, which made the laws and levied the taxes in the colony.

Collateral Reading. — Eggleston and Seelye's "Pocahontas," 17-23.

CHAPTER VII

EARLY NEW ENGLAND SETTLEMENTS

Puritans and Separatists.—Three hundred years ago it was customary to persecute people who differed in religion from the majority of the population. Catholics persecuted Protestants, and Protestants persecuted Catholics, and one sort of Protestants persecuted another sort. Some Protestants in England did not like the prayers and other ceremonies of the established church. They wanted to reform the church, but had no idea of leaving it. These were called Puritans. There were others who disliked the ceremonies so much that they separated from the church. These were called Separatists, and they were the most persecuted of all.

The Pilgrims.—There was one congregation of Separatists in the northeast of England in a little place called Scrooby, in Nottinghamshire. In the year in which Jamestown was settled these persecuted people fled out of England and went to Holland, where they were allowed to worship God as they pleased. There they lived about thirteen years. They at last became dissatisfied with their conditions in Holland. They saw that if they should remain there their children and grandchildren would become Dutchmen. They therefore resolved to go to America and plant a colony there. These were the people whom we call the Pilgrims.

Only about one half of them could get away from Leyden (li-den), where they were then living. In July, 1620, they left Holland for England in a little ship called the

"Speedwell," which was to have crossed the ocean in company with the "Mayflower," but was found unfit for the voyage. In September the "Mayflower" sailed from Plymouth, carrying the Holland pilgrims and others who had joined them, one hundred and two persons in all.

The voyage was a stormy one, lasting nine weeks. The Pilgrims had a charter from the Virginia Company, and they intended to settle in the region south of the Hudson River. Their captain took them to Cape Cod, which was far outside the limits of the Virginia Company's domain.

Signing the compact in the cabin of the "Mayflower"

As they were sick and ship-weary, however, they decided to settle somewhere near where they were.

The Compact.—Those persons on the ship who were not Pilgrims, but strangers who had joined themselves to the Pilgrims in England, threatened that they would not obey the authority of any government. The Pilgrims, therefore, before landing drew up a compact pledging themselves to enact from time to time such laws "as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony." To these laws nearly all the company promised "due submission and obedience."

The Landing at Plymouth.—Captain John Smith had

sailed along what is now the New England coast some years before, in an open boat, and had made a map, giving to a harbor within the Bay of Cape Cod the name of Plymouth. After exploring the coasts the Pilgrims decided to land at this point. A number of them landed on Plymouth Rock on the 21st of December, 1620.

Sufferings.—The long voyage in the overcrowded ship, and the lack of good food and warm houses in so cold a climate had their natural effect. Nearly all of the colonists fell ill, and by the end of the winter forty-four of them were dead. Six more died within the year. Among these were John Carver, the governor. The first exploring party sent from the "Mayflower" had been attacked by Indians, and the Pilgrims lived in constant fear of them.

The Pilgrims and the Indians.—The Indians living near Plymouth were hostile toward all white people because an English captain had treacherously carried off some Indians to Europe five or six years before. Among these captured Indians was a man named Tisquantum. He had learned to speak English, and was now back in America, near Plymouth but he kept away from the Pilgrims.

Samoset

One day, when the dreadful first winter was nearly over, an Indian came into the town alone, and greeted those he met with the words, "Welcome, Englishmen." He was a sagamore, or chief, from the coast of Maine, who had learned a little English from men on the fishing vessels. His name was Samoset. The Pilgrims treated him kindly, and he made them visits, bringing other Indians with him.

One of those who came was Tisquantum or, as the English

called him, Squanto. He stayed in Plymouth till his death, two years later, and was very useful to the whites. He taught them how to catch the fish in the bay, and how to enrich the soil of their corn-fields by putting one or two fish into each hill, as the Indians did. Between Cape Cod and Narragansett Bay lived the Wampanoags. Their chief, Mas'sasoit, became a good friend of the Pilgrims. Governor Carver made a treaty of peace with him, which was not broken for fifty-four years.

Standish's swords

Miles Standish.—The military commander at Plymouth was Captain Miles Standish. He was not a Separatist in religion, but he liked the Pilgrims, and had joined his fortunes with theirs. It was his habit to deal severely with hostile Indians.

Plymouth.—The region in which the Pilgrims settled had been given to the Council for New England, which was chartered (1620) to succeed the Plymouth Company. When the "Mayflower" got back to England in 1621 with the news that the Pilgrims were established at Plymouth, their friends got for them a patent from the Council for New England, which gave the colony one hundred acres of land for each colonist, rent free for seven years, and fifteen hundred acres for public use. It also gave them the right to govern themselves. On the death of Governor Carver, William Bradford,* then only thirty-two years old, was made governor, and he was reëlected every year for the rest of his life, except when he refused the office. Elder Brewster ruled the church, and also took his turn standing guard against Indian attacks.

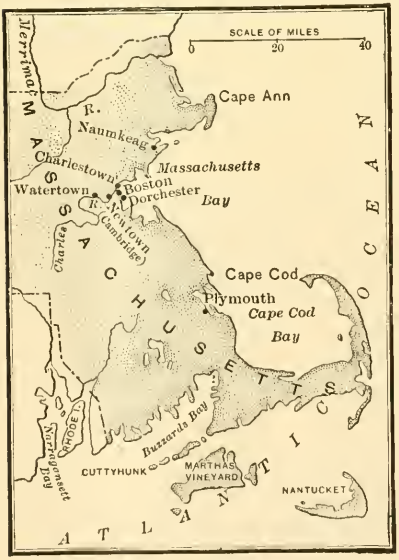
Progress of the Colony.—For several years food was scarce, and famine often threatened the colony. The Pilgrims lived out of a common stock of supplies, as the Jamestown people did. The allotment of a small body of land to each family

* For biography, see Appendix.

in 1624 relieved all distress. The colonists were ready enough to work when each man knew that he should eat of the fruit of the labor of his hands. Meanwhile, other families came out from Holland and from England, and in 1624 there were one hundred and eighty persons in the Plymouth colony.

By 1626 the Pilgrims had begun living in houses made of hewn planks, each house having a little garden about it, while a stockade surrounded the town. On a hill now known as " Burial Hill " there was a square house, strongly built, which served the Pilgrims as a fort. Six small cannon on the flat roof commanded the country round about. The people were called together on Sunday mornings by the beat of a drum, and the men all carried their firearms to the meetinghouse, and kept them within easy reach during the service.

John White's Colony.—John White, rector of a church in Dorchester, England, being a Puritan, became concerned that persons going on fishing and trading voyages to New England should be so many months without church privileges. He interested the shipowners of his town in making a settlement on the coast of New England. Only a few of the men who came over to fish were needed to take the cargo back. The rest might remain and employ themselves in hunting and cutting timber, and in the spring might plant corn. In such a settlement a minister might live and care for the souls of the



Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay

fishermen. This was John White's dream. The Dorchester Company was organized, and in 1625 a few fishermen were left on Cape Ann to form the beginning of a colony. Others came afterward. But everything went wrong, and three years later most of the men went back to England. The rest removed to Naumkeag, afterwards called Salem.

Puritan costumes

The Spread of Puritanism.—The ideas of the Puritans had spread throughout England, and those who accepted them now formed a party of power and influence. The party was as much political as religious. When Charles I. became king, the Puritans fared badly, and they lost all hope of bringing about the changes they desired in Church or State. Many of them began to think it would be better to go, as the Pilgrims had done, to the wilderness of America than to remain in England.

The Massachusetts Bay Company.—In 1628 the Massachusetts Bay Company was formed. Like the Virginia Company, it was composed of shareholders. It bought land from the Council for New England. The grant thus obtained gave them all the land between the Merrimac and Charles rivers, and three miles beyond each river, extending to the Pacific Ocean on the west. In June of the same year a little party was sent out under John Endicott, and a settlement called Salem was made at Naumkeag, where some of White's colonists still lived. From that time onward Puritans came over the sea in ever-increasing numbers. In March, 1629, the Massachusetts Bay Company got from Charles I. a charter which gave it the right to govern the colonies it should plant in America.

This was not free government, and the Puritans in England were not satisfied. They adopted a shrewd device.

The charter did not say where the company should meet, and a few months later it resolved to change the place of its meetings from London to the colony, and to carry the charter across the seas. By this wise movement the people in the colony acquired the right to govern themselves by becoming members of the company.

The Great Migration.—John Winthrop * set sail with the "Great Migration" in 1630. He had with him the charter and more than a thousand people. Twenty thousand people were added to the colony between 1630 and 1640.

John Winthrop

There lived on the site of Boston one Blackstone, a clergyman, who invited the newcomers to settle there. Charlestown, where Winthrop had first settled, had shoal water, while ships of any size might come up to Boston. Winthrop took down the frame of his house, and removed to Boston.

The Punishment of Quakers.—The laws of Massachusetts were very severe against all who taught other doctrines than those of the Puritans. After the other leaders were dead Endicott was repeatedly chosen governor. When some Friends, or Quakers, came to Massachusetts to preach their doctrines, Endicott dealt very harshly with them. They were extreme in dress and in speech. They were punished by banishment after being whipped at the cart's tail, and were warned not to return to the colony. They came back, however, and four of them, including one woman, were hanged. King Charles II. was very angry at this severity, and in 1661 he ordered it stopped. It is only fair to say that the majority of the people of Boston opposed the executions.

* For biography, see Appendix.

Summary.—1. The Puritans wished to make reforms in the church of England, without leaving it. The Separatists left the church entirely and set up a worship of their own.

2. Certain persecuted Separatists fled to Holland, and remained there thirteen years. Then, in company with others, they came to America, landing at Plymouth in December, 1620.

3. They made a treaty of peace with the Indians, which was not broken for more than half a century.

4. While the people lived from a common stock of food, they suffered much, and were often threatened with famine. When, at last, they were allowed to till the land, each for himself, they prospered, and others came out to join them.

5. John White, an English clergyman, tried to establish a colony of fishermen left in America when their ships sailed for home with the catch of fish. The effort failed.

6. Moved by persecutions in England, the Puritans formed the Massachusetts Company. They settled first at Salem, and Puritans from England came over in large numbers to join them.

7. Charles I. (1629) gave the Massachusetts Company a charter giving it the right to govern all colonies it should plant in America. The Puritans in England secretly removed the company and its charter to the Massachusetts colony, where the colonists by becoming members of the company could share in making their own laws.

8. John Winthrop brought out one thousand people in 1630. Within the next ten years twenty thousand people were added to the colony.

9. Endicott became governor. He bitterly persecuted the Friends, or Quakers, who came to Massachusetts, whipping them, banishing them, and hanging four of them.

Collateral Reading.—Eggleston's "The Beginners of a Nation," 98-219; Fiske's "The Beginnings of New England," 50-139; Brooks's "Stories of the Old Bay State," 9-73.

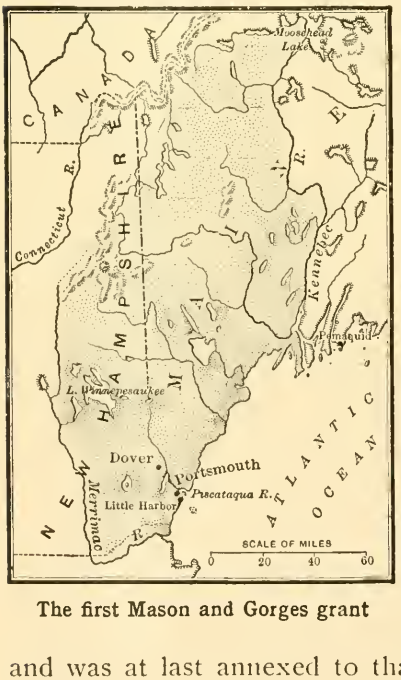
CHAPTER VIII

OTHER NEW ENGLAND SETTLEMENTS

Maine and New Hampshire.—After the failure of the Popham colony (p. 43) Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason received a grant of all the region between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers, which was called Maine, meaning

the mainland. In 1623 David Thomson, a fisherman, settled at Little Harbor, on the Piscataqua River, near its mouth. This was the first recorded settlement in New Hampshire. The first settlement in Maine was made at Pemaquid in 1625.

Dover and Portsmouth.—Gorges in partnership with Mason obtained a private grant of a tract of land on Lake Champlain and Lake George. They called it Laconia. They organized a trading company, and sent over settlers in 1630 and afterwards. These established stations on the Piscataqua River, intending to ascend it in boats, and then make their way by land to Laconia. They tried for three years in vain to find Lake Champlain. Failing in this, they gave up the enterprise, but the little stations on the Piscataqua remained and grew to be the towns of Dover and Portsmouth.

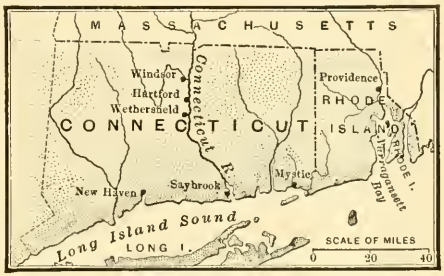


The first Mason and Gorges grant

Gorges and Mason afterwards divided their claims. Gorges took the portion east of the Piscataqua River which some years later was organized as the province of Maine. Mason gave his territory the name of New Hampshire. New Hampshire was afterwards several times joined to Massachusetts, but finally separated from it in 1692. Maine very early came under the government of Massachusetts, and was at last annexed to that colony under the charter of 1692.

Connecticut.—The Dutch who had settled on Manhattan

Island claimed the western side of the Connecticut River valley, by virtue of an exploration made in 1614. In 1633 they bought a part of that territory from the Indians, and set up a trading house there, near the site of Hartford.



Connecticut and Rhode Island

The people of Plymouth had heard from Indians and fur traders of the advantages for trade and other occupations which this rich valley afforded. They conceived the idea of removing their entire colony to that region. During the summer in which the Dutch arrived on the Connecticut, a vessel was sent from Plymouth to that river, carrying some workmen and the frame of a house ready to be put up. Though threatened they were not attacked by the Dutch. They landed a few miles farther up the river, and set up their house where Windsor now stands. The year before, the patent for that region had passed into the hands of a new company in England, and in 1635 John Winthrop the younger, son of the Massachusetts governor, was sent over to build a fort at the mouth of the river to defend the region from intruders. He arrived just in time to drive away the Dutch, and built a fort there which was called "Saybrook," in honor of Lord Say and Sele and Lord Brook, the two most prominent members of the company which owned the grant. It was joined to Connecticut in 1644.

Settlement of Connecticut.—Some of the Puritans in Massachusetts were not satisfied with the government of that colony. They thought all men should have votes, and not church members alone. They also wished to remove to some place where their cows would have more pasturage. In 1635 a few people from Dorchester and Watertown made

their way to Connecticut, and began little settlements at Windsor and Wethersfield.

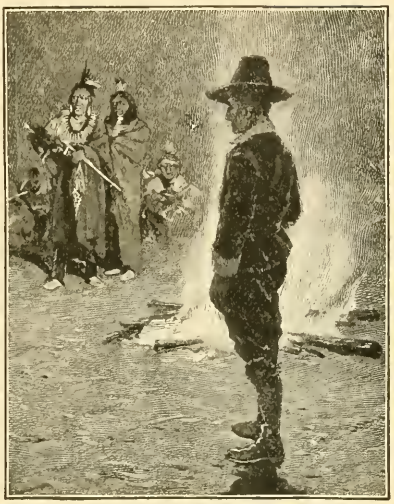
In June of the next year (1636) the migration to the Connecticut valley from Newtown, now Cambridge, Massachusetts, began. The people sold their houses to newcomers from England, and set out overland, led by their pastor, Thomas Hooker.* It was a journey of only a hundred miles, but the emigrants had to cut a road through the forest for their wagons and their cattle. It took two weeks, therefore, for the company of one hundred persons to reach its destination near the place where Hartford now stands. During the same year a great part of the congregation of Dorchester, Massachusetts, came to join those who had begun a settlement at Windsor, and the congregation of Watertown removed to Wethersfield. In 1639, after the towns had governed themselves for two years, they drew up a written constitution which united them formally under a single government. Every man under this constitution had a right to vote without regard to his religion. For one hundred and eighty years—until long after the Revolution—the little republic thus formed lived under this constitution.

Roger Williams and the Rhode Island Colony.—In 1636 Roger Williams,* pastor of the church at Salem, gave offense to the authorities by preaching doctrines which they regarded as dangerous. He taught that every man has a right to worship God as he pleases, without interference by other men, or by the government. He called this "soul-liberty." He also held that America belonged to the Indians, and that the king of England had no right to grant the land to anybody. The authorities ordered Williams to quit the colony at once and go back to England.

Instead of doing so he fled through the wilderness to the head of Narragansett Bay, and there took refuge with Massasoit, the chief of the Wampanoags. He secured land from

* For biography, see Appendix.

the Indians, and founded the town of Providence. Under his rule every man had entire religious liberty. The settlement thus established was perhaps the first one in the world founded on these principles. It was the beginning of the Rhode Island colony.

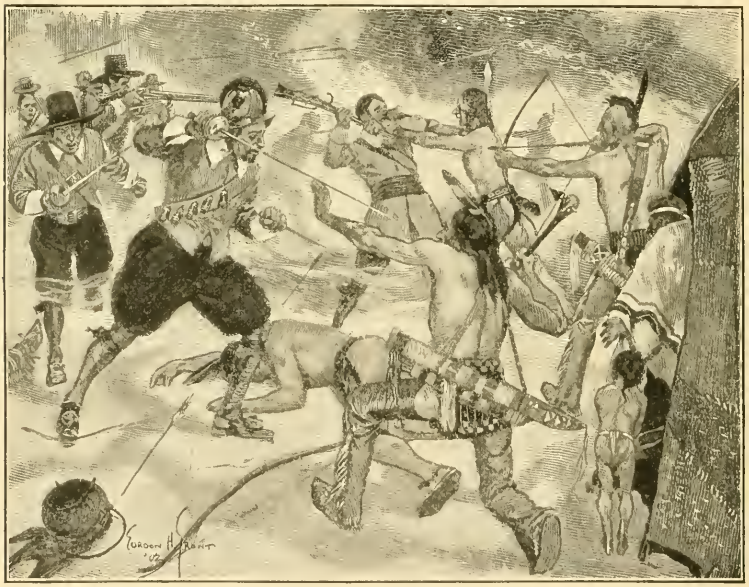


Roger Williams in Massasoit's wigwam

Mrs. Anne Hutchinson.—The year after Roger Williams was banished from Salem, a gifted woman, Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, was excommunicated from the church at Boston, and banished from the town because of her religious views and teachings. She had held meetings in Boston, which were attended by all the influential women of the place, and had there taught doctrines which the pastors of the churches strongly disapproved. When she was driven from Boston, she made her way with a party of her friends to the island of Rhode Island, which was then called Aquidneck. There she and her friends founded the town of Portsmouth. Other exiles for conscience' sake went to Narragansett Bay and made settlements. These were finally united into one colony, which afterwards became the State of Rhode Island.

The New Haven Colony.—In 1638 a company of Puritans from England established a colony thirty miles west of the Connecticut River. They had no grant or charter from king or company, but depended upon an Indian deed for their land title. The first settlement, begun in 1638, was two years afterward named New Haven. In 1662 New Haven and its dependencies were joined to Connecticut.

The Pequot War.—The Pequot Indians living in Connecticut drove away another tribe which also lived there, and then sold their lands along the Connecticut River to the Dutch. The English settlers objected to this. They brought back the Indians whom the Pequots had driven away, and built a fort to protect them. The English wished to buy from these Indians the lands which the Pequots had



Slaughter of the Pequots

sold to the Dutch. The Pequots grew angry, and began killing English traders and making raids on the Connecticut settlers, torturing to death all whom they could catch. In 1637 Captain Mason, with a company of Connecticut and Massachusetts men, was sent into the Pequot country. The Pequot chief, Sassacus, had a village at Mystic, in Connecticut. It was defended by a strong palisade. At daybreak, while the savages were asleep, the white men surrounded the village and set fire to it. The Indians were

panic stricken and made no organized defense. In less than two hours about seven hundred Indians—men, women, and children—had perished. Some were burned to death in their wigwams, and some were shot while trying to escape. A war of extermination against the rest of the tribe followed, and Indians of other tribes were frightened into keeping the peace with the English for many years.

The United Colonies of New England.—In 1643 there appeared at Boston delegates from Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, and a confederation of the New England colonies was formed. The purpose of this union of the four little states was to provide for mutual defense. The Rhode Island and Maine people wanted to join, but were forbidden because of their religious views. So far in those days did people carry their religious differences into public affairs.

King Philip's War.—So long as Massasoit lived the Wampanoags remained at peace with the Plymouth settlers; but when his son Philip became chief of the tribe, serious difficulties arose. Philip was angry because the white men were slowly taking possession of his hunting grounds, and also because many of his people had been converted to the white man's religion. These converts were called "praying Indians," and they lived in separate villages under the general control and government of the Plymouth and Massachusetts colonies.

In 1675 war broke out. The Wampanoags, led by Philip, attacked several villages belonging to the Plymouth colony, burned them, killed many of the inhabitants, and carried others into captivity. The Narragansetts aided Philip secretly at first, and this angered the white men against them. In December the colonists made a sudden attack on the Narragansett fort, which stood on a piece of rising ground in the midst of a swamp. Hundreds of the Indians were killed, and their village was burned. This was called the Swamp Fight. The colonists lost two hundred men, and by this attack made open enemies of the entire tribe.

Driven from their homes, the Narragansetts scattered over the country, killing white people, and burning towns wherever they went.

For a time the white men fell into one ambush after another, and were slain by scores. But after a while they learned how to fight the Indians. Finally, in 1676, they drove Philip to hide himself in a swamp with a few of his men, and one of them betrayed his hiding-place to Captain Church, who promptly surrounded it. In the fight that followed Philip was killed. The rest of the Indians were soon subdued.

In this war more than two thousand Indians were killed, and many were captured and sold into slavery in the English West Indies. In Massachusetts and Plymouth more than half the towns were wholly or partly destroyed, and more than one tenth of all the men of military age were slain or made prisoners by the Indians. The little colonies were long in recovering from their losses.

Summary.—1. The region between the Merrimac and the Kennebec was granted to Gorges and Mason. They divided their claims. Gorges took the eastern part, which later became Maine; Mason took the western part, which became New Hampshire.

2. The English settlement of the Connecticut valley began in 1634. Hartford was founded in 1636. The same year Williams set up a refuge for the persecuted at Providence.

3. New Haven was settled in 1638 by a company of Puritans, but had no royal charter or grant. In 1662 the several towns of this settlement were joined to Connecticut.

4. A war with the Pequot Indians lasted two years and closed after Mason's fight at Mystic in 1637.

5. In 1643, Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven joined in a confederation for mutual defense.

6. The power of the Indians under King Philip was broken in the Swamp Fight in 1676.

Collateral Reading. — Eggleston's "The Beginners of a Nation," 166, 167, 176-181, 208-211, 315, 316; Andrews's "The History of the United States," I., 37-46; Higginson's "A Book of American Explorers," 312-319, 328-337.

CHAPTER IX

NEW YORK AND MARYLAND

Hudson the Explorer.—Henry Hudson * was an Englishman well known as a fearless mariner, who had gone farther north than any other explorer up to his time. Captain John Smith, of Virginia, who was a friend of Hudson's, was told something by the Indians which led him to believe that there was a passage into the Pacific Ocean somewhere north of Chesapeake Bay. He sent Hudson a letter and a map on which such a passage was shown a little to the north of Virginia. Soon after getting the map, Hudson entered the service of the Dutch East India Company. This company sent him out in command of a little ship called the "Half Moon" to find a passage to China by sailing around the northern coast of Europe. He was instructed not to go to America, but finding himself so beset with ice that he could go no farther northeast, he remembered Smith's map, and turned his course to America. He explored the coast systematically.

New Netherland

Hudson River.—Beginning near the mouth of the Chesapeake, he went northward, examining every inlet and river mouth. He went into Delaware Bay, and next into what is now New York Harbor. This was in 1609. He pushed on up the Hudson River as far as Albany, meeting Indians, and having many romantic adventures with them. He sent a boat still farther up the river, until he became satisfied that the route to China was not to be found there. Then he gave up the search and returned to Europe.

* For biography, see Appendix.

Hudson had found the Indians eager to trade, and in the next year the "Half Moon," with some of Hudson's men in her crew, came back to the river he had discovered. Other traders came in 1611. The fur trade was profitable from the first.

The Dutch West India Company.—Those Dutch merchants who first sent out ships to trade with the Indians wished to keep others away from the seat of their valuable traffic. They organized a company, and got a charter from the Government of Holland giving them exclusive rights for three years to trade in the Hudson River region, which they called New Netherland. At the end of that time the Dutch West India Company was chartered, and to it was given a monopoly of trade and government in all the Dutch possessions in America.

Trading Posts and Settlements.—The Dutch had early established three trading posts on the Hudson—one near Albany, one on Manhattan Island, and one between these two. The island of Manhattan soon became the chief center of their trade with the Indians. In 1614 a fort was built at the south end of it and called Fort Amsterdam. The settlement which grew up about it was later called New Amsterdam, after the principal city in Holland.

The Dutch did not send out any colonists until 1623. Two settlements were made at first—one at Fort Orange, now Albany, and the other at Wallabout, now a part of the Borough of Brooklyn in New York city. In the year 1626 Peter Minuit came over as governor of New Netherland. He bought Manhattan Island from the Indians for twenty-four dollars' worth of trinkets. He is called the founder of New York city, which began its existence as New Amsterdam.

Patroons.—In order to promote emigration to New Netherland the Dutch West India Company decided to give special privileges to those who should establish settlements there at their own expense. Any member of the company who should bring over fifty persons above fifteen

years of age, and settle them on the land, was to become the proprietor of a tract extending sixteen miles on one side of a river, or eight miles on both sides, and as far back into the country as he pleased. It was also provided that he should have the rights and power of a lord of the manor, with the title of "Patroon." He must buy the lands from the Indians, and he must provide the colonists with all that

Purchase of Manhattan Island by Peter Minuit

was necessary for farming. The colonist must remain on the land for ten years, and must pay rent to his patroon.

New Sweden.—The Dutch West India Company had made one or two attempts to plant colonies on the Delaware River, but in 1632 no Europeans occupied the banks of that stream. A new company was formed, with a charter from Sweden, although Sweden had no claim to any land in America. Under this Swedish charter Protestants of any nation might be shareholders in the company, and discontented members of the Dutch West India Company had

a hand in its organization. In 1638 the first colonists were sent over, and a "fort" was erected near the present city of Wilmington, Delaware.

Peter Minuit, who had left or lost his place as governor of the colony at Manhattan, was made governor of this Swedish colony. The knowledge he had gained in governing New Netherland enabled him to send large cargoes of furs to Sweden. The Dutch objected to this occupation of their territory, and they rebuilt Fort Nassau, which lay a little below the present city of Philadelphia, on the New Jersey side of the river. There was constant trouble between the Swedish and Dutch colonies, and in 1655 Peter Stuyvesant * (sti'ves-ant), governor of New Amsterdam, sailed to the Delaware with seven hundred men and took possession of the region, which the intruders had named "New Sweden."

The Indian War of 1643.—In 1643 the Indians of Long Island and the Hudson River united in a war against the colonists of New Netherland. Many of the Dutch fled from New Amsterdam to Fort Orange, now Albany, while all who could do so went back to Holland. This war lasted for two years, and about sixteen hundred Indians perished in it. At last the Iroquois, who wished to trade with the Dutch, brought about a peace between them and their Indian neighbors.

The English Claim.—Some time after this the English set up a claim that all the territory between Maryland and New England belonged to Great Britain. They based this claim on the discoveries of Cabot (p. 25). Holland was not a very powerful nation, and her settlements in America were widely scattered. She had more territory than her colonists could hold and defend. Besides all this, the Dutch colony had been settled partly by Englishmen and partly by adventurers of other nations. These were naturally not to be depended upon by the Dutch in their dispute with England.

* For biography, see Appendix.

New Netherland Seized by the English.—In 1664, in a time of peace, an English fleet entered the harbor of New Amsterdam and demanded the surrender of the city. Peter Stuyvesant, the governor, wished to resist, but the city had no fortifications, and the people persuaded him to surrender. The names of New Netherland and New Amsterdam were changed to New York in honor of James, Duke of York, to whom the province had been given by his brother, King Charles II. In 1673 the Dutch retook New Amsterdam, but they gave it up to Great Britain again in the next year. The village had then about fifteen hundred inhabitants, mostly Dutch.

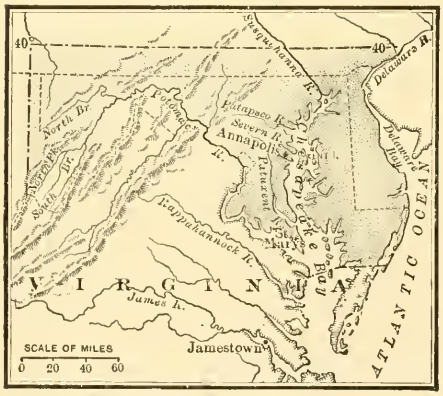
New Amsterdam in Stuyvesant's time

The Settlement of Maryland.—During the same period in which the Dutch settled and lost New York, another experiment in colonizing was going on in what we now call Maryland. George Calvert, Secretary of State to James I., was a member of the Virginia Company, and later became one of the councilors for New England. He sent a colony to Newfoundland. A few years later he resigned his secretaryship, and at the same time King James made him an Irish peer, as Baron Baltimore. He had become a Catholic, and after the accession of Charles I. he went to his colony in Newfoundland, taking with him a company of Catholic settlers.

Illness and the severity of the climate led him to abandon Avalon, as he called his Newfoundland colony, and go to Virginia. He had written to King Charles, asking for land there. Perhaps this became known, or perhaps the Vir-

ginians, who were intensely Protestant, disliked him simply because of his Catholicism; at any rate, they demanded that he should take an oath acknowledging the king as the head of the Church. As a Catholic, Lord Baltimore could not do this. He was, therefore, ordered to leave Virginia.

The Second Lord Baltimore's Charter.—Lord Baltimore returned to England, and got the king, Charles I., to give him a part of Virginia north of the Potomac for a colony, to be called Maryland, in honor of the queen, Henrietta Maria, or Mary. But before the charter was sealed Lord Baltimore died, in 1632, and the territory was then granted to his son Cecil Calvert,* the second Lord Baltimore. The grant extended from the Potomac to the fortieth parallel of latitude, and from Delaware Bay westward to a north and south line running from the sources of the Potomac to the northern boundary. Within this territory Lord Baltimore might coin money, declare war, make peace, enact laws, and exercise all sovereign rights.



Maryland by the original grant to Lord Baltimore

The Maryland Colony.—Lord Baltimore's colonists crossed the ocean in two ships, called the "Ark" and the "Dove," and in March, 1634, they landed near the mouth of the Potomac River, where an Indian village stood. They bought the village and some corn fields from the Indians.

The colony consisted of about two hundred laboring men and servants, and twenty "gentlemen," with Leonard Calvert, brother of the proprietor, at their head. It was in-

* For biography, see Appendix.

tended that Maryland should be a Catholic colony, and serve as a refuge from the persecutions which Catholics then suffered in England; but Lord Baltimore meant that there should be toleration for all forms of Christian belief in his province.

The colonists laid out a town where they first settled, and called it St. Marys. For some years Lord Baltimore's authority was resisted by persons who had come from Virginia to the region granted to him. William Claiborne, of Virginia, had made a settlement on Kent Island, in Maryland, and he now refused to submit to the new proprietor. After a struggle he was driven away. Puritans who came from Virginia, where they were persecuted, to enjoy the tolerance of Lord Baltimore, refused to take the oath of allegiance to him. At one time these Puritans managed to gain the ascendency in the colony, and passed an anti-Catholic law. Three years later the Catholics again got control, and kept it until the time of William and Mary in England. Maryland then became Protestant, but not wholly intolerant. The Catholics were at that time only about one twelfth of the population. Among them were many of the best people of the province.

Summary.—1. Henry Hudson, in the service of Holland, sailed up the Hudson to Albany in 1609, and found a great opportunity for trade in furs with the Indians.

2. Dutch traders immediately availed themselves of this opportunity, calling the country New Netherland, and establishing three trading posts—one at Albany, one lower down, and one on Manhattan Island, which grew into a settlement called New Amsterdam.

3. In 1623 the Dutch West India Company was chartered, with a monopoly both of trade and government. Peter Minuit came out in 1626 as governor. He bought Manhattan Island from the Indians for twenty-four dollars in trinkets.

4. The company offered rich grants of land to persons who should bring out colonies. These colonizers were to be called "Patroons."

5. A company chartered by Sweden undertook to establish a colony on the Delaware River, but Peter Stuyvesant, Governor of New Netherland, broke up this settlement in 1655.

6. In 1664 an English fleet seized upon New Netherland and made the colony an English one, naming it New York.

7. In 1634 a new colony was founded in Maryland by Cecil Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore, as a refuge from persecution for English Catholics.

8. This colony had no Indian troubles, but the jealous Virginians under Claiborne resisted the colonists at first. The founders, though Catholics, tolerated settlers of all Christian faiths.

Collateral Reading.—Theodore Roosevelt's "New York," 5-11, 38-42, 45-48; Eggleston's "Beginners of a Nation," 228-230, 236-238, 241-243; Andrews's "History of the United States," I., 48-61.

CHAPTER X

THE CAROLINAS

The Long Pause.—During the years following the settlement of Maryland England was disturbed by the great rebellion under Cromwell and there was a long pause in the work of colonization. But in 1663 a large region cut off from Virginia on the south was granted to eight courtiers by Charles II. It included the territory that is now North and South Carolina and Georgia.

Carolina by the grant of 1665

The Name Carolina.—This region was sometimes spoken of as South Virginia, and sometimes as Carolina (p. 34). The lords proprietors, to whom it was now granted, retained the name Carolina as a compliment to King Charles.

The First Settlement.—There was already a small party

of settlers living on Albemarle Sound, near the northeast corner of Carolina. These were settlers who had come from Virginia under the lead of an adventurous minister named Roger Green, and their settlement was the first permanent one in North Carolina. The new proprietors organized it as the Albemarle Colony, naming it for one of their number, the Duke of Albemarle.

The Second Settlement.—In 1663 Sir John Yeamans Brought a company from Barbados, and settled on the Cape Fear River, where he had obtained a grant of land from the proprietors. This settlement was later called the Clarendon Colony, in honor of another of the proprietors, the Earl of Clarendon. It was broken up within ten years by the removal of the settlers to various places.

Settlement in South Carolina.—In 1670 William Sayles was sent over from England with three ships carrying colonists. They landed at Port Royal, in South Carolina, and began a settlement, but soon removed to the south bank of the Ashley River. Here they founded a town and named it Charles Town, in honor of Charles II. Ten years later the colony changed its location to the north bank of the Ashley River, and there established a new town, the present city of Charleston. This was the first permanent settlement in South Carolina. The whole colony at this time bore the name of Carteret, in honor of one of the proprietors, Sir George Carteret. The name of Charles Town was changed to Charleston at the end of the American Revolution.

Other Settlers.—In 1674 many settlers came from New Amsterdam to Carolina. They became an important element in the population. French Protestants came also in great numbers, and Protestant Irish in still greater multitudes. North Carolina was largely settled from Virginia, and yet more largely by settlers who came in from Ireland and Scotland.

The Constitution of Carolina.—The lords proprietors foolishly tried to force upon the little woodland settle-

ments of Carolina a constitution they had prepared in England with the assistance of the philosopher John Locke. But the constitution worked badly or not at all, and after a while it was given up. The proprietors, living in England, managed the colonies wholly for their own profit, and their government was greatly disliked by the people.

The Culture of Rice.—In 1696 a man named Thomas Smith got some Madagascar seed rice from the captain of a ship, and planted it in his garden at Charles Town. From this beginning came the culture of rice in South Carolina, where that grain reached a perfection nowhere else known in the world, and became one of Carolina's greatest products.

Rice

The Culture of Indigo.—Eliza Lucas (afterwards Mrs. Pinckney), when only sixteen years old, was left in charge of her father's plantations near Charles Town while he was absent in the West Indies. About 1739 she began trying to grow indigo. After losing one crop by frost, and having another cut down by worms, she succeeded in bringing the plants to perfection. But the expert sent by her father from the West Indies to manufacture the dye purposely ruined it, because he thought the trade of his island would suffer if Carolina should produce indigo. Still Miss Lucas persevered, and by 1745 the new industry was established, and two years later two hundred thousand pounds of the dye were shipped to England. Indigo was a leading product of South Carolina for about forty-five years, or until after the invention of the cotton gin. Then cotton took its place.

Indian Wars in the Carolinas.—In 1670, the year in which Charles Town was settled, the Westoes Indians attacked the colonists and nearly destroyed them. The Indians of North Carolina were a warlike Iroquois tribe called Tus-

caroras. In 1711 they ravaged the borders of the province, putting people to death cruelly. The war lasted for two years. Then with the aid of Virginia and South Carolina and some friendly Indians, the Tuscaroras were beaten. Some were captured and sold as slaves to the West Indies. But many escaped through the trackless forests to New York, where they became the sixth nation in the Iroquois confederacy.

Indigo

In 1715 the Spaniards in Florida stirred up the Indians from Florida to Cape Fear against the South Carolina colonists. A league was formed to destroy all the settlements in the province, and six or seven thousand Indian warriors were engaged in the plot. Among them were the Yemassees, who had helped the North Carolina colonists defeat the Tuscaroras two years before. South Carolina had only a little army of seventeen hundred men with which to oppose the Indians, and two hundred of this small force were negroes. The war lasted about three years, and then the Indians were driven from the province.

North and South Carolina.—The whole of Carolina was considered one province, but the territory was so large that the northern and southern portions were governed separately. The South Carolina colonists contended for their rights for years, and finally in 1719 they rose in rebellion against the rule of the lords proprietors, and asked the English Government to protect them. A royal governor was sent over two years later, and in 1729, the king having bought out the interest of the proprietors, North and South Carolina were established as separate royal colonies.

Summary.—1. After the settlement of Maryland in 1634, there was a pause in colonization until the beginning of the Carolinas in 1663, when the Duke of Albemarle, Earl Clarendon, and others received a grant of that region from King Charles II.

2. Roger Green had begun a little settlement ten years earlier in North Carolina.

3. A colony was planted at Port Royal in 1670. It was twice removed, and finally established (1680) where the city of Charleston is now located.

4. In 1696 the culture of rice was begun in South Carolina.

5. There were Indian wars in the Carolinas in 1680, 1711, and 1715.

6. In 1719 the South Carolina colonists rebelled against the lords proprietors, and in 1729 Carolina was divided into two colonies, both under royal government.

7. In 1745 the culture of indigo was established.

Collateral Reading.—Bancroft's "History of the United States I., 484-489, 509-514, 517-520.

CHAPTER XI

NEW JERSEY AND PENNSYLVANIA

New Jersey.—When the Duke of York came into possession of New Netherland he transferred that part of it which lay between the Hudson and Delaware rivers to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, and gave it the name of New Jersey in honor of Carteret, who had been governor of the island of Jersey in the English Channel. Philip Carteret was appointed governor of the province, and he came over in 1665 with thirty persons to plant a colony. Except for a few Dutch villages on the Hudson, and a few families at Navesink, there were at that time only four families in New Jersey. These had just founded Elizabethtown, which became Carteret's capital. There he landed, and marched into the town with a hoe on his shoulder. The proprietors of New Jersey promised all who should come freedom of worship and other liberties. This promise brought many settlers to the colony.

Lord Berkeley, who held half of New Jersey under English title, sold his interest in 1674, and two years later it passed into the hands of William Penn and two other Quakers, or Friends, as agents. The province was then divided, giving to these Friends West Jersey, and to Sir George Carteret East Jersey. In 1682 East Jersey passed into the hands of William Penn and eleven other Quakers.

New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware

The sale and division of shares in East and West Jersey went on, and the proprietors were soon too numerous to manage their government. Disorders arose which they could not suppress, and in 1702 they asked Queen Anne to take charge of the province. So East and West Jersey were again united into a single colony.

William Penn's Colony.—Next to George Fox, William Penn * was the most influential member of the Society of Friends. His connection with the affairs of West Jersey turned his attention to America as a refuge for those whose religious opinions were not tolerated in England. He conceived the idea of establishing a colony wholly under his own government where there might be simplicity of life and freedom of worship for all.

Just across the Delaware River from New Jersey was a territory occupied only by a few Swedes. In 1681 William Penn secured from the king, Charles II., a grant of forty thousand square miles of this territory in payment of a claim he held against the king for money due to his father. The king named the province Pennsylvania—Latin for Penn's woods—in honor of Admiral William Penn, who had distinguished himself in the wars between England and Holland.

* For biography, see Appendix.

William Penn

The Transfer of Delaware.— Penn sent his first emigrants to Pennsylvania in 1681. They landed where Philadelphia now stands.

Penn bought Delaware from the Duke of York, so that his colonists could always pass through the bay to the sea. In 1682 Penn himself came over with one hundred Friends from England, many of whom had been his neighbors there. Late in October he landed at New Castle, Delaware. On the day after his landing the government was formally transferred to him by the Duke of York's agent in the presence of a crowd of English, Dutch, and Swedes, who had assembled to welcome the "Quaker king." The key of the fort was delivered to him, and he went in and locked the door. Then he unlocked it and came out. This was to signify that he was master of the place. A piece of sod with a twig stuck into it was handed to him, and also a porringer filled with water from the river. This signified that the land with its forests and also the streams flowing through it were made over to Penn.

Philadelphia.—A site for the capital city had been chosen before Penn arrived, and a residence for him had been begun by his commissioners. Penn wished to build a "green country town" with a garden about each house, and he chose for it the name of Philadelphia, which means "broth-

erly love." The town was laid out in 1682, about a month before Penn landed, but it is commonly said to have been founded in 1683. Before a year had passed, Philadelphia contained one hundred and fifty houses, most of them rudely built. In two years more the houses numbered three hundred and fifty-seven, many of them being three stories high, and well built. Before the Revolution Philadelphia had become the largest town in the colonies.

Penn's Government.—In December, 1682, representatives of the people assembled at Chester and organized a government. The right to vote was given to every man who paid his taxes, and Christians of any denomination might hold office. People of other nations were allowed the same privileges that were given to Englishmen, and no law could be made without the consent of the people. This liberal government attracted many settlers, and Pennsylvania soon became the most populous of the colonies, and one of the richest.

Penn's house in Philadelphia

Penn's Treaty with the Indians.—William Penn respected the rights of the Indians, and wished to gain their confidence. On June 23, 1683, he met the principal chiefs of the Delawares under a large elm tree, on the shore of the Delaware River, at a place called Shackamaxon, just north of Philadelphia. Though the object of the meeting was the purchase of land from the Indians, Penn made it the occasion of a treaty of friendship. He explained to the savages the Quaker doctrines of justice and good will to

all men, and asked for their friendship. The Indians promised to "live in love with William Penn and his children," meaning the people under his government, and so long as he lived no Indian ever killed a Quaker.

Wampum belt given to Penn by the Indians

Mason and Dixon's Line.—Maryland as granted to Lord Baltimore included a part of the land afterward granted to William Penn. This led to a dispute which lasted nearly one hundred years. In 1763 two English surveyors were employed to run a dividing line between the two colonies. This line was called from their names, Mason and Dixon's line. The surveyors were prevented by the Indians from completing their work, but their line was afterward extended to the western limit of Pennsylvania. This line later became famous as the division between the free and the slave-holding States of our Union, and the name of it was popularly applied to the dividing line farther west.

Summary.—1. The Duke of York in 1664 transferred New Jersey to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Under a promise of religious liberty, discontented persons came in great numbers to the new colony; but troubles arising, the proprietors transferred the Jerseys to Queen Anne in 1702.

2. William Penn, an English Quaker, secured from the king in 1681 a grant of the country now called Pennsylvania.

3. Penn's first emigrants landed where Philadelphia now stands (1681).

4. Having bought Delaware, Penn came over in 1682. He founded Philadelphia. The town grew rapidly, and before the American Revolution it had become the largest city in the colonies. Penn bought the land from the Indian chiefs and made with them a treaty of peace, which was not violated while he lived.

5. Penn's government was liberal, allowing foreigners equal rights

with Englishmen, allowing every man to vote, and securing religious liberty to all.

6. A boundary dispute having arisen between Pennsylvania and Maryland, two surveyors named Mason and Dixon (1763) ran a dividing line, which afterwards became famous as the dividing line between the free and slave States.

Collateral Reading.—Bancroft's "History of the United States," I., 100-110, 122-125, 128-129; Eggleston's "Household History of the United States," 58-62.

CHAPTER XII

THE FOUNDING OF GEORGIA

German countrywoman of that time

German Immigration.—Germany had sent more emigrants to America than any other country on the Continent of Europe. A few Germans came with the Jamestown Colony, and a few with the earlier Puritan colonists. But the beginning of the flood of German immigration was when William Penn's colony was established, offering liberty of worship and freedom from military service. There were many little Protestant sects in Germany at that time, and they were much persecuted. Some of them, like the Friends, were opposed to war. In 1685 Germantown, now a part of Philadelphia, was laid out by Germans who had been in the colony for about two years. The tide of immigration became greater and greater, thousands of Germans coming to Pennsylvania to escape the miseries brought upon them by persecution and by the wars that desolated their country.

German countryman of that time

In Queen Anne's reign thirteen thousand poor people from the Palatinate of the lower Rhine fled to England

within three years and asked to be sent to America. These people were called Palatines. Some of them were sent to Virginia, some to the Carolinas, and some to Maryland. In 1709 a great number came to New York, but were not fairly dealt with there. Hearing that Germans were well received in Pennsylvania, three hundred of these refugees made their way into that province. From that time forward the Germans crowded into Pennsylvania and avoided New York.

Irishwoman of that time

Irish Immigration.—Most of the Irish who came to America before the Revolution were Presbyterians, commonly called "Scotch-Irish." This emigration increased or decreased as the linen industry in Ireland was poor or grew better. About 1718 some Irish immigrants came to New England, where they introduced the spinning of flax and the planting of potatoes. There was no colony to which the Irish did not go, but more went to Pennsylvania than to any other. In 1729 five thousand Irish immigrants reached Philadelphia. The Irish were good Indian fighters, and they showed enterprise and courage in pushing into frontier regions.

Irishman of that time

Huguenot Immigration.—Another great stream of immigration from Europe came from France. The Huguenots, or French Protestants, whose lives were made unhappy at home by the civil wars and persecutions of the time, came in large numbers to the different colonies. They were obliged to get away from France secretly, leaving all their property behind them. There were so many of them in New Amsterdam in 1656 that all public documents were issued in French as well as in Dutch. The Huguenots settled in nearly every colony,

Huguenot merchant's wife

but South Carolina became their favorite place of refuge.

Secondary Migrations.—The colonists, having broken loose from old associations in Europe, were constantly moving to and fro in this country in search of favorable conditions. Within a dozen years after the Puritans came to Massachusetts Bay they made settlements in all the present New England States except Vermont, and in ten years more they were intruding upon the Dutch about New Amsterdam. They went in great numbers to New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and to the other colonies. Virginians made settlements in Maryland and in North Carolina. Many Dutch, discontented with English rule in New York, removed to South Carolina in 1671 and later, while some settled in Maine, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. When the later Indian wars laid waste the frontiers of Pennsylvania in the eighteenth century, many of the German and more of the Irish settlers moved southward into western Virginia, and onward to the Carolinas.

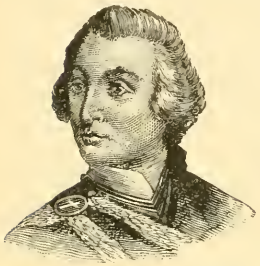
Huguenot merchant

The Philanthropic Colony.—After the settlement of Pennsylvania fifty-one years passed before another colony was begun. From the French possessions in Canada to the Spanish territory in Florida, the whole coast had been granted to English colonies; but Spain claimed all of South Carolina as a part of Florida, and continued to stir up the Indians, who occupied most of the region, to make war on the little English settlements.

James Oglethorpe,* an English general, thought it would be a good thing to take a part of the disputed territory and plant a military colony between the Carolina settlements

* For biography, see Appendix.

and Florida. In 1732 he secured a grant from King George II. of that part of South Carolina which lay between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. He named the region Georgia in honor of the king. It was not Oglethorpe's intention that the new colony should be a source of profit. He and his associates held the land "in trust for the poor."



James Edward Oglethorpe

At that time people in England who could not pay their debts were thrown into prison. Oglethorpe's plan was to satisfy the creditors of such of these prisoners for debt as seemed most worthy, and send them out again to begin life anew in his colony. He put on the seal of the colony a Latin motto which meant, "Not for self, but for others," with silkworms engaged in spinning as a device. The seal had a double meaning. Oglethorpe meant to raise silkworms in Georgia, so that England might not need to buy silk from Italy. He also meant to make an unselfish colony.

Oglethorpe's Colony.—Oglethorpe landed at Charles Town with one hundred and sixteen persons, and with these he began to build Savannah in 1733. Other colonists soon came out to him, among them a regiment of Scotch Highlanders sent out to defend the border, some persecuted Protestants from Germany, and twenty families of Hebrews. Only Roman Catholics were excluded from the colony.

Oglethorpe's Laws.—Oglethorpe treated the Indians fairly, and won their admiration by his calm endurance of hardships. They gave his colony little trouble. He sought only the good of the people, but his plan of government was not long pleasing to the colonists. They were not allowed any voice in the making of the laws. Each man had fifty acres of land assigned to him, but he could not sell it, rent it, or divide it among his children. At his death it passed to his eldest son; if he had no son, it went to the trustees of the colony. No man could have more than fifty

acres unless he brought in, at his own expense, white servants enough to cultivate it. Negro slaves were forbidden, because Oglethorpe wanted his colony to be composed of hard-working white men who would keep up its military strength. The people felt that such laws took away the motive for the improvement of their property, and many of them left the colony. In regard to slavery, the trustees yielded to the people in 1747.

In 1752 they surrendered the government to the king, and Georgia remained a royal colony until the Revolution.

Summary.—1. German immigrants came to all the colonies from the beginning. They came in great numbers to Penn's colony.

2. The Irish who came to America introduced flax spinning into New England, and also the growing of potatoes. They came to all the colonies, but most of them to Pennsylvania.

3. There was a considerable immigration of French Protestants called Huguenots. Most of them went to South Carolina, but each of the colonies received some of them.

4. Throughout the colonial period there was much migration to and fro among the colonies.

5. The last of the original colonies was founded by James Oglethorpe (1732) in Georgia. He rescued many poor people from debtors' prisons in England and brought them to Georgia to begin life anew.

6. Oglethorpe began to build Savannah in 1733. He brought out a regiment of Scotch Highlanders to defend the border, and English, German and Jewish immigrants. But Roman Catholics were not allowed to enter the colony.

7. Under Oglethorpe's rule the people had no voice in making their laws. They could not sell their lands, or rent them, or divide them among their children. Negro slaves were forbidden till 1747. In 1752 Georgia became a royal province.

Table of Settlements.—1. Virginia was settled at Jamestown by the English in 1607.

2. Massachusetts was settled at Plymouth by the English in 1620.

3. New Hampshire was settled at Portsmouth by the English in 1623.

4. New York was settled at New Amsterdam, now New York city, by the Dutch in 1614.

5. Maryland was settled at St. Marys by the English in 1634.

6. Connecticut was settled at Wethersfield, Windsor, and Hartford by the English in 1634-1636.

7. Rhode Island was settled at Providence by the English in 1636.

8. Delaware was settled at Christiana, near Wilmington, by the Swedes in 1638.

9. North Carolina was settled at Albermarle by the English in 1653.

10. New Jersey was settled at Elizabethtown, now Elizabeth, by the English in 1664.

11. South Carolina was settled at old Charles Town by the English in 1670.

12. Pennsylvania was settled near Philadelphia by the English in 1682.

13. Georgia was settled at Savannah by the English in 1733.

Collateral Reading.—Bancroft's "History of the United States," II., 560-566; Andrews's "History of the United States," I., 118; Eggleston's "Household History of the United States," 63-69.

CHAPTER XIII

REBELLION AGAINST ENGLISH AUTHORITY

New England under the Commonwealth.—In the same year in which the colonists of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven formed a league under the title of "The United Colonies of New England," the great Puritan rebellion against Charles I. broke out in England, and emigration to New England very nearly ceased. From the beginning of Puritan ascendency to the restoration of the Stuarts in 1660, which brought Charles II. to the English throne, the New England colonies were left to carry on their affairs in their own way.

New England and Other Colonies under Andros.—Massachusetts had become too independent to suit King Charles II. He therefore sent over commissioners to manage the government. The people would not submit to this, and the king resolved to take away their charter. This had been given by Charles I. (1629), and he intended it to be kept in England, but the colonists had secretly carried it to America, as related on page 60. Charles II. had the charter annulled by the Courts in England (1684). Six months later Charles II. died, and his brother, James II., became king.

Sir Edmund Andros, who had before been governor of

Andros demands the charter of Connecticut

New York, was sent over by James during the next year to be governor of New England, New York, and New Jersey. Andros governed despotically, and tried to deprive the people of their rights. He levied taxes without the consent of the people, and he interfered with the liberty of the press. For all this he had the authority of the king.

He had been instructed to get possession of the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island, but he was unable to do so. It is related that the Connecticut Assembly prolonged the discussion with him till after dark, when the lights were suddenly blown out. When the candles were relighted the charter was gone. It had been carried off by Captain Joseph Wadsworth, and hidden in the hollow of an old oak tree. The tree was called the "Charter oak."

In 1688 a revolution in England drove James II. from the throne. As soon as the people of New England heard

of this they rose against Andros, threw him into prison, and the next year sent him back to England.

Leisler's Rebellion.—James II. was succeeded on the throne by his eldest daughter, Mary, and her husband, William III., as joint sovereigns. This change brought about a collision between the plain people and the friends of James II. in New York. The latter were rich and aristocratic, and included all the officeholders. An armed mob gathered in the streets, and with loud cries hurried to the house of Jacob Leisler, demanding that he should lead them against Fort James. Under his lead they seized the fort, and a new government was organized, with him at its head. It was intended that this government should last until William and Mary could act. Leisler afterwards had himself proclaimed lieutenant-governor for the king, and he acted as such for nearly two years. He was a patriotic man, but was imprudent and arbitrary. William and Mary took no notice of him, but sent over a new royal governor, whom Leisler resisted by force of arms. For this Leisler was arrested on a charge of treason and murder. The judges being his enemies, he was condemned and hanged.

Virginia under Sir John Harvey.—When Virginia was made a royal colony in 1624, the king promised the people all the rights they had enjoyed before. In 1629 Sir John Harvey was sent over to Virginia as governor. He soon became greatly disliked. The Virginia Council forced him to go back to England to answer charges. King Charles would not yield to the wishes of the Virginians, and Harvey was sent back as governor in the next year. The people had to submit to his rule for three years. Then the king removed him.

Berkeley's Government.—The last governor of the Virginia Colony appointed by Charles I. was Sir William Berkeley, who was sent over in 1642. He held the office till Virginia was brought under the authority of the Commonwealth (1649). Eleven years later the Virginia Assembly elected Berkeley governor, and Charles II., who soon afterwards became king, sent him a commission.

Berkeley ruled the colony in his own interest. He made a profit, largely illegal, from the fur trade, and wished to keep peace with the Indians lest the supply of furs should be cut off. When the Indians again began making war on the frontier settlements of Virginia (1676), the people appealed in vain to Governor Berkeley to send soldiers to defend them. Thus forced to rely upon themselves, the people raised a little army of three hundred men for defense, but they had no leader. There was in the colony a young man named Nathaniel Bacon. He lived on a plantation about twenty miles below Richmond, not far from the Indian frontier. He was a well-educated man of good family. Bacon was a member of the governor's council, and it was said of him that he was "acceptable in all men's company."

Bacon's Rebellion.—The people wished to make this young man their leader in an expedition against the Indians, who were making depredations on the frontier. Bacon sympathized with the people, the more fully, perhaps, because the Indians had destroyed his own crops, killed his cattle, and murdered his overseer, a favorite servant. He asked Governor Berkeley for a commission to fight the Indians, but Berkeley refused, and Bacon was unwilling to assume command without authority from the governor. Some prominent men persuaded him to visit the camp of the little band of volunteers, and as soon as he appeared, the cry was raised, "A Bacon!" "A Bacon!" "A Bacon!" That was the old English way of choosing a leader, and Bacon yielded to the wishes of the people.

At the head of his little army he marched against some Indians on the Roanoke River and overcame them. On returning he found himself proscribed as a rebel and deposed from the governor's council. But the people supported him, and soon they were nearly all in open rebellion. The governor was finally compelled to give Bacon a commission as major-general, but each time that Bacon set out to fight the Indians Governor Berkeley thwarted him.

Bacon at last turned about and marched to Jamestown.

Bacon's army marches against the Indians

The governor retired to his fleet, but waited in sight of the town. To prevent Jamestown from falling again into Berkeley's hands, Bacon's men set fire to the place, which consisted of a church and sixteen or eighteen widely scattered houses.

Bacon's military conduct in every emergency was of the finest. Soon after taking Jamestown he fell ill and died. After various mistakes on the part of those who succeeded him in command, his rebellion collapsed. The old governor's avarice was gratified by the estates he confiscated, and his revenge was glutted by hanging twenty-three men. At this point Charles II. recalled him in disgrace, and he soon afterward died.

Summary.—1. During the Puritan ascendancy in England (1649-60) the colonies governed themselves.

2. After Charles II. became king, he had the charter of Massachusetts annulled (1684). Sir Edmund Andros was sent over to govern New York, New England, and New Jersey. He tried to seize the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island, but failed.

3. When William and Mary ascended the English throne in 1688 the people of New England rose against Andros, imprisoned him, and sent him back to England.

4. The people of New York also rose in rebellion, under one Jacob Leisler, seized upon the government and held it for two years, after which Leisler was hanged for treason and murder.

5. In 1629 Sir John Harvey was sent over as governor of Virginia. His rule was greatly disliked. After three years he was removed.

6. In 1642 Sir William Berkeley was sent to Virginia as governor. He held the office till the time of Cromwell. When the Stuarts were restored, the Virginia Assembly elected Berkeley to be their governor, and King Charles II. sent him a commission. Berkeley ruled corruptly and refused protection against Indians. This led to Bacon's rebellion.

Collateral Reading.—Parkman's "Montcalm and Wolfe," I., 25-35.

INTERCOLONIAL WARS

CHAPTER XIV

THE PROGRESS OF NEW FRANCE

The Occupation of Canada.—The settlement of Canada began, as we have seen (p. 36), with the founding of Quebec by Champlain, 1608. Champlain was soon made governor

Frenchmen trading with Indians

of Quebec, and he held that office until his death, which occurred twenty-seven years after the founding of the city.

French Influence over the Indians.—The great business of the French in Canada was trading with the Indians in furs, and they carried it on with an energy that left the traders

of the English colonies far behind. While the English were multiplying farming settlements, the French in Canada pushed their explorations into all the regions around the Great Lakes, partly for the sake of trade with the Indians, and partly in the hope of finding the long-sought water-way through the continent.

From the first the French made friends with the Indians near them. French priests were sent over to convert the Indians to Christianity. Wherever the trader went, the priest went also, spending his days in the huts of the savages, trying to teach them religion and win them to civilized ways. Through the trader and the priest the French were able to control most of the tribes.

Marquette and Joliet.—Having made their way as far west as Wisconsin, setting up military posts and missionary houses as they went, the French heard from the Indians of a great river farther on. Joliet (zho-le-ā) and Father Marquette (mar-ket), were sent to seek for it, and in June, 1673, they reached the Mississippi River by way of the Wisconsin. In their birch-bark canoes they descended the Mississippi nearly to the mouth of the Arkansas. They thought they were very near the Gulf of Mexico, and were afraid to go farther lest they should encounter Spaniards or Indians armed with guns. They turned back, therefore, and paddled up the river, turning up the Illinois and carrying across the Chicago portage to Lake Michigan, and arrived at Green Bay about four months after the time of their setting out.

Indian fur trader

La Salle.—In 1666 La Salle,* a young Frenchman, came to Canada in search of adventure and fortune, and three years later he went at his own expense in search of the great river of which he had heard

* For biography, see Appendix.

PART OF
NORTH AMERICA
SHOWING THE PREVAILING CLAIMS OF SPAIN, FRANCE, AND ENGLAND.
ABOUT 1700
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Longitude West from Greenwich
130 120 110 100 90 80 70
40 30 20
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
ENGLISH
SPANISH
FRENCH
NEW FOUNDLAND
Gulf of St. Lawrence
CAPE BRETON I.
Quebec
Montreal
Port Royal
ACADIE
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Charles Town
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Biloxi
Mobile Bay
Apalachie Bay
Williamsburg
James R.
Detroit
L. Erie
L. Ontario
L. Champlain
St. Lawrence R.
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
Green Bay
Fox R.
Wisconsin R.
Mississippi R.
Falls of St. Anthony
Missouri R.
Platte R.
Illinois R.
Ft. St. Louis
Kaskaskia
Rapids (Louisville)
Ohio R.
Cumberland R.
Tennessee R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Santa Fe
Cibola
Colorado R.
Gulf of California
Rio Grande
Nueces R.
Great Salt Lake
Wasatch Mts.
Sierra Nevada
Columbia R.
ROCKY MTS.
APPALACHIAN MTS.
LOUISIANA
CALIFORNIA
MEXICO
BAHAMA IS.

from the Indians. With the aid of Indian guides he reached the Ohio, and descended that river as far as the rapids at Louisville. From that time La Salle cherished the idea of taking possession of the valley of the Mississippi for France.

King Louis XIV. of France gave him a patent which authorized him to make discoveries and plant forts in the western part of New France. After many disasters and failures La Salle made another start late in the year 1681. In April of the next year he reached the mouth of the Mississippi. He planted a column near the mouth, having on it the arms of France. He proclaimed to the Frenchmen and Indians assembled that he took possession, for France, of the country and all it contained. He named it Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV. His claim covered all the region along the Mississippi, from its source to its mouth, and also along all its tributaries. The upper Mississippi had been explored during the year before by Father Hennepin, a Catholic missionary, who went as far up as the Falls of St. Anthony, which he named.

The French and the Iroquois.—The year after Quebec was settled Champlain had helped his Indian allies to defeat their enemies, the Mohawks, in a battle on Lake Champlain. This made the whole Iroquois confederacy hostile to the French, because the Mohawks were one of the five nations of which that league was then composed. The Iroquois occupied central New York, and they were friendly to the Dutch and the English. They carried to Albany all the furs they could secure, and got blankets, guns, powder, brandy, and other things in exchange for them.

The territory of the Iroquois did not yield enough beaver skins to pay for all the supplies they wanted, and after a while they planned to conquer the tribes far to the northwest, which were allied with the French, and secure for themselves the beaver skins of that region. In 1680 they began their attacks, and after that the French were in

constant trouble, defending their Indian allies and their trade.

Disputes between the English and the French.—There was a continuous quarrel going on between the English and the French about the fur trade and about the ownership of the land west of the Appalachians and south of the Great Lakes. On the Atlantic coast also there had long been conflicting land claims. The New England fishermen, too, encroached on the French fisheries near Acadia. This furnished another subject for dispute.

Summary.—1. Champlain founded Quebec in 1608, and other French settlements were made on the St. Lawrence.

2. The French traded with the Indians, pushing their explorations into the country round the great lakes, and making friends of most of the tribes.

3. Joliet and Marquette discovered the Mississippi (1673) and explored it southward to the Arkansas. Father Hennepin explored the upper waters to the Falls of St. Anthony.

4. La Salle (1669) went down the Ohio to the rapids, and in 1682 he went down the Illinois and the Mississippi to the mouth, where in the name of the French King, Louis XIV, he took possession of all the regions drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries, naming it Louisiana.

5. There was constant war between the Iroquois and the French, involving the tribes friendly to the French. The French also had a standing quarrel with the English over fisheries and land claims.

Collateral Reading —Parkman's "A Half Century of Conflict," II., 63-67; Parkman's "Montcalm and Wolfe," I., 20-25.

CHAPTER XV

THE EARLIER FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS

King William's War.—So long as England and France were at peace, the colonists of both countries were forbidden by their sovereigns to engage in any but defensive warfare. The struggle betwen New York and Canada for the fur trade was, therefore, limited to efforts to gain ascend-

ency over the Indians who controlled it. When James II. was driven from the throne of England, Louis XIV., king of France, espoused his cause, and war between the two countries was soon declared. There was, therefore, no longer any reason for keeping the peace in America.

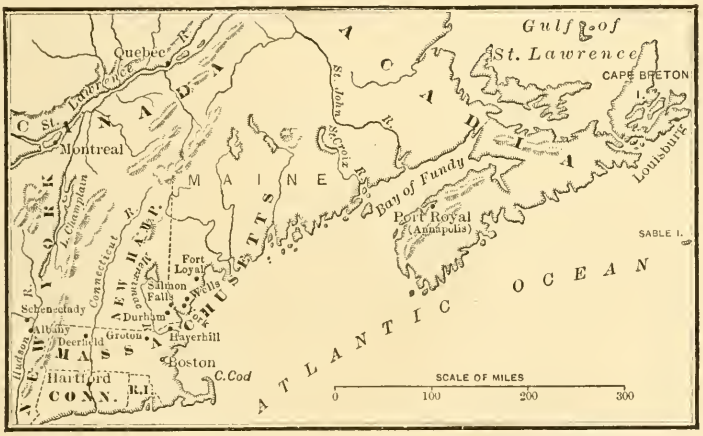
Count Frontenac was sent to Canada for the second time as governor, to put down the enemies of France and recover the fur trade. On his arrival in Canada (1689) he found the French engaged in war with the Iroquois. His first task,

Attack on Schenectady by Frenchmen and Indians

therefore, was to overcome the Indians. He sent three war parties during the next year to attack English settlements. The first set out in February from Montreal traveling on snowshoes, to make its way to Albany and take the town. When the party reached the point on the Hudson where the path toward Schenectady left the main trail, they turned aside, not daring to attack Albany. They fell upon the village of Schenectady by night, and killed men, women, and children, about sixty in all. A few of the people escaped to Albany, but many prisoners were taken.

Attack at Salmon Falls and Fort Loyal.—About a month after the massacre at Schenectady, the second party sent out by Frontenac attacked the settlement of Salmon Falls, New Hampshire, and left it in ashes after killing or capturing most of its inhabitants. On its retreat this party fell in with the third body of men sent from Canada. The combined force attacked Fort Loyal, Maine, and after a siege of three days destroyed it.

Expeditions against Montreal and Quebec.—Early in May, 1690, a Congress held in New York planned attacks on



Earlier French and Indian wars

Montreal and Quebec. An expedition set out from Albany for Montreal. It got into trouble and turned back, but a small detachment pushed on to some French border settlements and attacked them, with no great success.

The expedition against Quebec was commanded by Sir William Phips, who a few months before had gone out to defend the commerce of Massachusetts, and had captured Port Royal and the whole province of Acadia. Phips set out in August with his fleet of trading and fishing vessels and succeeded in reaching Quebec, but not in taking it.

In 1691 Peter Schuyler, mayor of Albany, led an expedi-

tion against the French settlers, but fell into an ambush from which he escaped only by desperate fighting.

Straggling Warfare and Butchery of the Settlers.—There followed several years of almost constant warfare from which the New England frontier suffered most. Some Indian allies of the French attacked the little village of York, Maine, during the winter of 1692. The village was burned, half the inhabitants were killed or captured, and the farms were laid waste for miles around. The brave little settlement of Wells, Maine, twice repulsed attacking parties. Durham, a small village in New Hampshire, was attacked in 1694 by Indians with Frenchmen at their head. Some of the inhabitants succeeded in defending their palisaded homes and saving their lives, but in the scattered farmhouses nearly all were killed. A few days later some of the same Indians fell upon the settlements near Groton, Massachusetts, and killed about fifty persons.

In 1697 peace was made between England and France, and this put an end to King William's War, which had lasted for eight years. The English gave back Acadia to the French, and both nations were left in possession of the same territory in America that they had held before the massacres began.

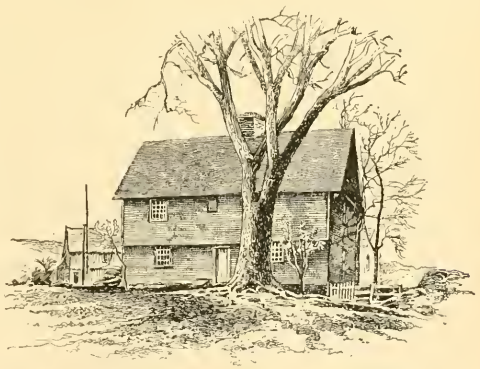
Beginning of Queen Anne's War.—In 1702 William III. died, and Anne, the daughter of James II., became queen of England. War again broke out between England and France, and hostilities in America were renewed. Spain joined France against England, and South Carolina became involved in war with the Spaniards and Indians in Florida.

Colonel Moore, of South Carolina, led an expedition against St. Augustine in the first year of the war. He took the town and laid siege to the fort. Two Spanish war vessels appeared in the harbor, and Colonel Moore burned the town and his own ships. He then retreated by land. The next year Moore, with a few Carolinians and a large body of Indian allies, invaded the country of the Indians

in Apalachee Bay and defeated the Indians, who were assisted by a Spanish force.

This successful raid cut Florida in two, and gave England a large territory which now constitutes most of the State of Georgia. In 1706 a French fleet appeared before Charles Town and landed troops. The Carolinians defended their territory with vigor, captured one ship and drove the enemy away.

New York Settlements not Attacked.—Having at last secured peace with the Iroquois, Canada was able to carry on her far-reaching fur trade undisturbed; but the Iroquois had long been faithful allies of the English, and during King William's War had put themselves under the protection of England, by deeding all their lands to the crown. The French could not attack the outlying settlements of New York without breaking the peace with the Iroquois, who stood ready to come to the aid of their English allies. Canada, therefore, adopted the policy of keeping up an Indian war on the frontiers of New England, but of letting New York alone. The same regions of little settlements which had suffered so severely in King William's War were again devastated. The little town of Deerfield, in northwestern Massachusetts, suffered most. It was attacked in 1704, and many of its inhabitants were killed, or carried away as prisoners.



Old house at Deerfield

Close of the War.—In 1710, with the aid of ships sent from England, Port Royal, in Acadia, was again taken from the French, and with it the whole of Acadia passed into the hands of the English.

The name of the town was changed to Annapolis Royal, in honor of Queen Anne, and the province was called by its old English name, Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. The war came to an end in 1713.

War between Georgia and Florida.—England declared war against Spain in 1739, and General Oglethorpe, of Georgia, embraced this opportunity to send an expedition against Florida. After taking two towns in that colony he withdrew. A few months later he again invaded Florida, and besieged St. Augustine, but the fortifications there proved too strong for him. In 1742 the Spaniards returned Oglethorpe's visit, but the latter maneuvered with his little force in such a way as to lead the Spaniards into ambuscades, and finally to rout them.

King George's War.—In 1744 France again declared war on Great Britain. The French tried to retake Annapolis Royal, but failed. Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, determined to defend Nova Scotia by taking Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island. Louisburg was, next to Quebec, the strongest fortress of the French in Canada. It was at that time a resort of French privateers which preyed on ships and fishing vessels belonging to New England. Governor Shirley, with a large force of volunteers from New England, set out with a fleet of transports and armed vessels. After a siege of six weeks Louisburg surrendered, June 17, 1745.

The news of this victory caused great rejoicing in New England, and a day of thanksgiving was appointed. It was a bitter disappointment to the New England colonies when Louisburg was given back to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which closed the war in 1748.

Summary.—1. In 1690 King William's War between France and England broke out. French and Indians from Canada ravaged the English colonies, and the English colonists made ineffectual attacks on Montreal and Quebec. This war lasted eight years.

2. Queen Anne's War began in 1702 and lasted till 1713. Spain being France's ally, South Carolina was involved with the Spaniards in Florida. A French fleet attacked Charles Town (1706), but was driven away.

3. In 1710 a foray from New England conquered Acadia.

4. In 1739, during a war between England and Spain, Oglethorpe, of Georgia, twice invaded Florida, and in 1742 he defeated a Spanish expedition against Georgia.

5. In 1744 France made war again, and the New England colonists captured Louisburg on Cape Breton Island. It was given back to the French in 1748, to the disappointment of the New Englanders.

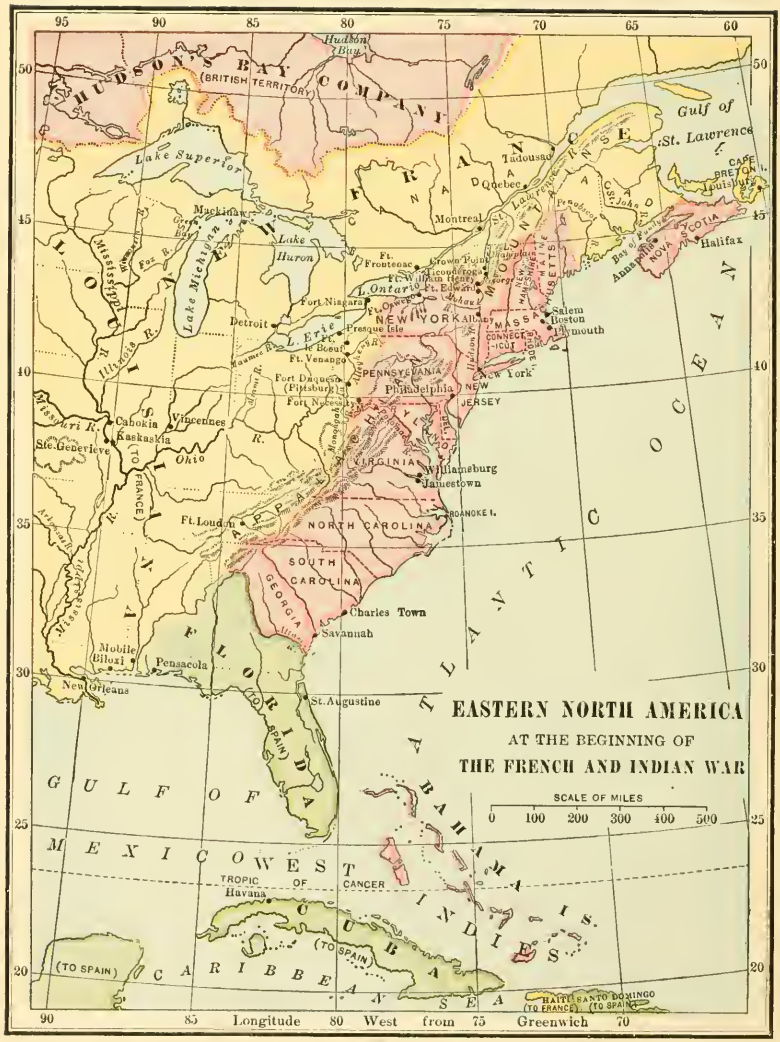
Collateral Reading.—Bancroft's "History of the United States," II., 345-356, 370-387; Parkman's "A Half Century of Conflict," II., 109-154; Andrews's "History of the United States," I., 139-145.

CHAPTER XVI

THE GREAT FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

Cause of the War.—In the treaties which closed the wars known in America as King William's War, Queen Anne's War, and King George's War, the interests of the American colonies were not much regarded by either England or France. These wars had other names in Europe, and were undertaken for objects that seemed to both nations of far greater importance than the affairs of the little colonies three thousand miles away. Boundary lines between British and French territory in America were therefore left unsettled, and the quarrel over them went on till it broke into open war in America at a time when France and Great Britain were at peace.

Louisiana.—The most important land question in dispute between the French and the English related to the vast region which the French claimed by virtue of La Salle's discovery, and called Louisiana. The English claimed a large part of the northern portion of this region under the deed given by the Iroquois to King William. But the French had asserted their ownership of the whole valley of the Mississippi in the customary way, by making settlements near the mouth of the river in 1699. In 1718 they had founded the city of New Orleans.


EASTERN NORTH AMERICA
AT THE BEGINNING OF
THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
(BRITISH TERRITORY)
Hudson Bay
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Gulf of St. Lawrence
CAPE BRETON I.
Louisburg
Halifax
NOVA SCOTIA
Bay of Fundy
Annapolis
Tadousac
Quebec
Montreal
Mackinaw
Detroit
Fort Niagara
Fort Frontenac
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
Fort William Henry
Fort Edward
Albany
Salem
Boston
Plymouth
New York
Presque Isle
Ft. Le Boeuf
Ft. Venango
Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg)
Fort Necessity
Philadelphia
NEW JERSEY
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
MASSACHUSETTS
CONNECTICUT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MAINE
VIRGINIA
Williamsburg
Jamestown
ROANOKE I.
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
Charles Town
Savannah
Ft. Loudon
Cahokia
Kaskaskia
Vincennes
Ste. Genevieve
Ohio R.
Mississippi R.
Illinois R.
Missouri R.
Arkansas R.
Mobile
Biloxi
Pensacola
New Orleans
St. Augustine
(TO SPAIN)
(TO FRANCE)
FLORIDA
LOUISIANA
NEW FRANCE
CANADA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
WEST INDIES
BAHAMA IS.
CUBA
Havana
TROPIC OF CANCER
CARIBBEAN SEA
HAITI (TO FRANCE)
SANTO DOMINGO (TO SPAIN)
Longitude West from Greenwich

This western territory was not involved in the earlier wars between the French and the English, but the French made ready to defend it whenever the English should attempt to intrude upon it. They gradually built up a line of forts or fortified trading posts along the route of water travel from New Orleans to Montreal. Though the French claimed so much territory in America, they had very few people here to occupy it. At the end of King George's War (1748) there were more than ten times as many people in the English colonies as in all the French possessions in America, and English traders and settlers were already crossing the Appalachian Mountains.

The First Ohio Company.—A company was formed in Virginia (1748) to make settlements beyond the mountains. By order of the king, Virginia granted to this company five hundred thousand acres of land on the Ohio on the condition that one hundred families should be settled there within seven years. In 1750 Christopher Gist was sent out to explore and to select places for settlement.

Burying the Lead Plates.—In 1749 the governor of Canada sent an expedition to forestall the English movement into the Ohio valley. A party of soldiers and others went down the Allegheny and Ohio rivers, carrying five or six lead plates, which they buried near the mouths of different streams. On each plate was an inscription, stating that the French at that time claimed the Ohio River and its tributaries, and all lands on both sides of those rivers. Somewhere near the present site of Cincinnati the last of the plates was buried.

French Forts.—The ridiculous device of trying to keep back the tide of English emigration by lead plates buried under ground at last gave place to something more practical. In 1753 Duquesne (du-kane), governor of Canada, sent an expedition to build forts in the Ohio valley. A fort was built where Erie now stands, on a point of land called Presque Isle (or "peninsula"), and another, called Fort Le Bœuf, where Waterford, Pennsylvania, is situated. At

Washington on his way to Fort Le Bœuf

Venango, an old Indian village, the French seized the house of an English trader, and made it a French outpost. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, sent a letter of remonstrance to the commander at Fort Le Bœuf, the principal French fort. His messenger was George Washington,* who was then only twenty-one years old.

After many hardships and dangers, Washington's little party of seven men reached Fort Le Bœuf and delivered the letter of Dinwiddie. The return journey was even more dangerous. But on the 16th of January Washington was back in Williamsburg with the reply of the French officer, which was virtually a refusal to heed the protest.

The Attempt to Build a Fort where Pittsburg now Stands.— Governor Dinwiddie and his Council then decided that they must secure a position at the forks of the Ohio by building a fort there in advance of the coming of the French. A trader named William Trent was appointed captain, and directed to raise a company of one hundred frontiersmen. With these men Trent began the building of the proposed fort. Two months later a French force numbering about five hundred men descended on the work from Fort Le Bœuf. The little garrison of only forty men was obliged to give up the position. The French destroyed the works of the English, and built a stronger fort on the same spot. This they called Fort Duquesne in honor of the governor of Canada.

Fort Duquesne

* For biography, see Appendix.

Washington at Great Meadows.—Washington was on his way with a force to join Trent when he heard the news of the loss of the position at the forks of the Ohio. He decided to advance to a point where the Ohio Company had a storehouse, about thirty-seven miles from Fort Duquesne. It was necessary to cut a road through the forest for the artillery, and two weeks were consumed in the march to a place called Great Meadows. Soon after his arrival Washington learned that some French soldiers were lurking near his camp, and he set out with forty men to find them. The French, when Washington appeared, seized their arms. At this sign of hostile intent Washington gave the command to fire. A sharp fight ensued. Ten Frenchmen were killed and twenty-two were captured.

With this encounter, which occurred May 28, 1754, the war began. There was now reason to expect an attack by a large force of French. Washington, therefore, sent for reënforcements, and began to erect a palisade, which he called Fort Necessity. The death of Colonel Fry, on his way to join Washington with fresh troops, left Washington in command of a little army of scarcely more than three hundred men. On July 4 Washington was attacked at Great Meadows by a French force of six or seven hundred Frenchmen with many Indian allies. After fighting for nine hours he surrendered on good terms.

Summary —1. The great French and Indian War grew out of a dispute between the French and English colonies as to the ownership of the Mississippi valley. English traders from Virginia and elsewhere were pushing their way into that region. In 1748 the first Ohio Company was formed in Virginia for the purpose of settling there.

2. In 1753 Governor Duquesne, of Canada, sent a strong force to build forts in that region. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, sent Washington with a remonstrance to the French commandant in the Ohio country, but without effect. Thereupon Governor Dinwiddie sent a company of frontiersmen to build a fort near where Pittsburg now stands. They were driven away by a French force, which built Fort Duquesne at the same spot.

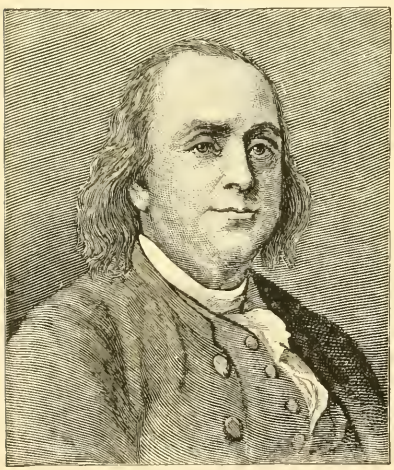
3. Washington with a small force took position at Great Meadows,

thirty-seven miles from Fort Duquesne, and awaited reënforcements. The reënforcements did not come, and on July 4 the French in overwhelming numbers attacked Washington and compelled him to surrender.

CHAPTER XVII

THE GREAT FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR—*Continued*

The Albany Convention—Franklin's Plan of Union.—In June, 1754, a convention was held at Albany to make a treaty between all the colonies on the one hand, and the Iroquois on the other. The delegates consulted also with reference to a permanent union of all the colonies. The delegate from Pennsylvania was Benjamin Franklin,* a warm advocate of union. A plan proposed by him was adopted by the convention and laid before the different colonies. The plan was rejected.



Benjamin Franklin

General Braddock Sent Over.—After the defeat at Great Meadows (1754), the French were left in possession of the Ohio. But Governor Dinwiddie continued to plan a movement against them. The colonies being independent of one another could not be brought to prompt and united action. So Dinwiddie appealed to Great Britain for help. Major General Braddock was sent over with two regiments early in 1755. In April he called a council, composed of the governors of the several colonies, and it was decided that

* For biography, see Appendix.

attacks should be made at four different points at the same time.

Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, was assigned to the duty of organizing the expeditions against Acadia, Crown Point, and Niagara. Braddock, with his thousand British regulars and about twelve hundred colonial militia, was to take Fort Duquesne.

Washington accepted a position on Braddock's staff as a volunteer aid without pay. By his advice Braddock advanced with about half of his men in order to reach Fort Duquesne before French reënforcements should arrive there.

About eight miles from the fort the army was suddenly met by three hundred French and Indians, who scattered and fired from behind trees. Braddock's men, standing in regular ranks, were easy marks for the riflemen. They were soon struck with panic. They broke and ran, though their brave officers tried hard to rally them. Washington, with his Virginians, untrained in regular military ways, but accustomed to fight Indians in the woods, protected the retreating troops by adopting the Indian mode of fighting, each man standing behind a tree and firing when he saw something to shoot at. General Braddock was mortally wounded, and more than half his men were killed or wounded. Twice during the fight shots that were aimed at Washington killed the horse on which he rode, and four bullets passed through his coat, but he remained unhurt, and the Indians firmly believed that he had a charmed life. This contest occurred on July 9, 1755.

The Expulsion of the Acadians.—The peasants of Acadia, though now subject to British rule, remained French at heart, and most of them refused to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain after their land became British territory. Now that war was on they were considered an element of danger, as they were always ready to take the part of the French against the English. It was therefore decided to remove them from Acadia and scatter them

Driving Acadians to the ships

through the different English colonies. This harsh measure was carried out in the autumn of 1755. About six thousand of these simple, ignorant people were forcibly put on board vessels and sent away from the homes they loved. Some of these unhappy exiles found their way back to Acadia after a time, and some went to Canada. Many of them found a home among the French colonists in Louisiana.

Expeditions against Crown Point and Niagara.—Sir William Johnson* was sent to take Crown Point, an important French fort on Lake Champlain, but he got no farther than the head, or southern end, of Lake George. Here he was attacked by the French under Baron Dieskau (dees'kow), and though he repulsed them, he did not follow up his victory. General Shirley led an expedition against Niagara which was also a failure.

Summary.—1. A convention was held at Albany in June, 1754, to make a treaty between the colonies and the Iroquois. Benjamin Franklin there proposed a plan for a union between the colonies. The plan was rejected by the colonies.

2. By request of Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, General Braddock was sent over with a thousand men to help take Fort Duquesne. It was decided to attack the French at four points at the same time.

3. Braddock, with his regulars and a force of Virginia militia, was to take Fort Duquesne, and Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, was to organize and send out three expeditions at the north.

4. Washington went with Braddock as a volunteer aid. Within a few miles of Fort Duquesne Braddock was attacked in the woods by French and Indians fighting behind trees. The British, kept standing in regular ranks, were quickly driven into disorderly retreat, but Washing-

* For biography, see Appendix.

ton with his Virginians, fighting in the Indian fashion, protected the British and prevented a complete rout. Braddock was mortally wounded, and half his men were wounded or slain.

5. The peasants in Acadia refused to swear allegiance to the British, and were removed from their homes to the other colonies.

6. Sir William Johnson was sent to take Crown Point on Lake Champlain. At the head of Lake George he was attacked by the French, whom he repulsed; but he did not follow up his victory, and his expedition came to nothing. General Shirley's expedition against Niagara also failed.

CHAPTER XVIII

LATER EVENTS OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

British Mistakes.—The statesmen who managed British affairs at that time did not understand conditions in America, and they sent over unfit officers to conduct the war. Early in 1756 the Earl of Loudoun was appointed commander in chief of the army in America and governor of Virginia. The purpose of this was to unite the colonies under a single military government.

The Marquis de Montcalm, a great French soldier, had already arrived in Canada to take Dieskau's place, and before the summer passed he captured the forts at Oswego. Montcalm had a smaller army than the English, but it was well trained, and he knew how to control it.

Marquis de Montcalm

Lord Loudoun planned an attack on Louisburg, and in June, 1757, he set sail, taking with him a large part of the troops who had protected the northern frontier. After going as far as Halifax, he turned back and sailed for New York.

The Siege of Fort William Henry.—Loudoun's withdrawal of troops from the New York frontier for the expedition to Louisburg gave Montcalm the opportunity for which he had been waiting. He at once mustered his Indian allies and moved with them and his French

army against Fort William Henry at the southern end of Lake George.

General Monroe occupied the fort with a garrison of a little more than two thousand men. He made a brave defense, but on the morning of August 9 he was forced to surrender. Montcalm promised that the troops should march out with the honors of war, and should be escorted in safety to Fort Edward, fourteen miles away. The Indian chiefs agreed to these conditions, and tried to restrain their followers. But the savages fell on the English as they set out on their march, and killed many of them. Montcalm and his officers risked their own lives trying to defend their prisoners.

Pitt Takes Control.—Now came a change. During the summer of 1757 William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, became Secretary of State in England, with entire control of foreign affairs. He removed Lord Loudoun, and adopted new measures regarding the expenses of war. He required of the colonies nothing more than that they should provide clothing and pay for their own troops, and he ordered that their officers should rank equally with the officers of the British regulars. Under this arrangement the colonies willingly voted Pitt all the men he asked for.

William Pitt

Three Expeditions.—Three expeditions were planned; one against Louisburg, one against Fort Duquesne, and one against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. After an active siege by sea and land, lasting nearly two months, Louisburg surrendered to General Amherst, July 27, 1758.

In September of the same year Fort Frontenac, which controlled Lake Ontario, was taken by Americans under Bradstreet and the entire French naval force on Lake Ontario was destroyed. Fort Duquesne was now cut off from supplies.

Capture of Fort Duquesne.—The expedition against Fort Duquesne was in charge of General Forbes, a veteran officer and a man of great resolution. Unlike Braddock, he was ready to adopt methods suited to warfare with Indians. Washington and his Virginians, who knew the ground, formed the advance guard on the last day's march. Next came Forbes on his litter, for he was mortally ill. On November 25, 1758, they reached Fort Duquesne. But the French, being too few in number to defend the fort, had set fire to it and retreated on the day before. Forbes built a stockade and named the place Pittsburg. A year later Fort Pitt was built on this site.

British Defeat at Ticonderoga.—The expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point was nominally under the command of General Abercromby, but Lord Howe was sent with him and was intended by Pitt to be the real leader. Howe was killed in a skirmish just before the attack on Ticonderoga. Abercromby at once began to blunder. The front of the fort was so strong that it was hopeless to assail it except with artillery. Yet Abercromby ordered his men to carry it by a bayonet charge. After several bloody repulses they were seized with panic and withdrew.

Ruins of Fort Ticonderoga

The End of the War Draws Near.—The close of the year 1758 saw the French power in America almost overthrown. Louisiana was cut off from Canada by the fall of Forts Frontenac and Duquesne. The French fur trade was destroyed, and the Indians of the interior were no longer willing to act as allies of the French. The fall of Louisburg had opened the way to Quebec for a British fleet.

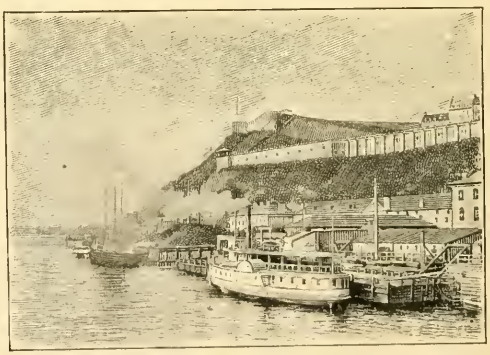
In 1759 Pitt directed General Amherst, commander in chief of the forces in America, to advance into Canada by way of Lake Champlain with the main army. He was to

take Fort Ticonderoga and Crown Point on his way, and he did so.

The Taking of Quebec.—An expedition was sent in 1759 against Quebec under the command of General James Wolfe,* a brave young officer. Pitt had selected him for the difficult and dangerous enterprise because of the energy and daring he had shown in the siege of Louisburg. The British fleet, with transports carrying Wolfe's army, arrived before Quebec late in June. Montcalm had concentrated his whole army there in expectation of an attack, and every point for miles above the city was entrenched and guarded. Wolfe found himself confronted by a high, almost perpendicular bluff, on which lay the city and fortress of Quebec. Wolfe was eager for battle, but all his efforts to draw Montcalm out into the open failed, and all efforts to gain access to the fort were equally without success. Storms and cold would soon make the departure of the fleet necessary.

James Wolfe

One day Wolfe discovered a ravine winding up the face of the bluff. At the top was a cluster of only ten or twelve tents. This indicated that the guard at that point was small, and Wolfe determined to take the desperate chance of gaining access to the fort by climbing up this path. Twenty-four brave men volunteered to lead the way. As soon as musket shots were heard the whole force which



The Bluff at Quebec

* For biography, see Appendix.

Wolfe had brought for the enterprise landed and clambered up the rocky face of the bluff, holding on by bushes. They reached the plateau above, called the Plains of Abraham, and were soon drawn up in line. Montcalm could no longer avoid battle. The English were in a position to cut off his supplies, and delay would give time for reënforcements to reach Wolfe.

Before ten o'clock in the morning Montcalm led out his troops to meet the English. His ranks were soon broken by the steady fire of Wolfe's men. Wolfe himself, while leading a charge, received two bullet wounds. He kept on, however, till a ball struck him in the breast, inflicting a deadly wound. He was carried to the rear with life almost gone. Just then the French gave way, and the dying commander was told that they were running. "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace," said the brave young general with his last breath. Montcalm, too, was mortally wounded while trying to rally his fleeing men. When told that he must die, he said, "I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." Three days after the battle on the Plains of Abraham (September 14, 1759), Quebec surrendered. The French attempted to retake the city in the spring of the next year, but failed. On September 8, 1760, Montreal surrendered to General Amherst, and all Canada was included in the terms of capitulation.

Canada Becomes British.—The war was finally ended by a treaty made at Paris in 1763. Under this treaty the French surrendered to Great Britain all their possessions in America east of the Mississippi River, except a region round New Orleans. In order to get back Havana, which the British had taken, Spain agreed to give Florida to Great Britain. France secretly gave Spain all French Louisiana west of the Mississippi River and the region around New Orleans.

Pontiac's War.—The Western Indians still disliked the English and resented their taking possession of forts in the Mississippi valley. Pontiac, an Ottawa chief, united all the tribes between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi in a war

against the English. Early in 1763 he laid siege to Detroit. After five months of vain effort he withdrew his forces. But the Indians captured nine small forts, and even attacked Fort Pitt. At Bushy Run, in Pennsylvania, twenty-five miles from Fort Pitt, General Bouquet defeated the Indians in a two days' battle. Most of the British regulars had by this time gone home, and most of the provincials, as the colonial soldiers were called, had been disbanded, so that there were few troops anywhere to meet the Indians in this struggle. Many settlers fled from the border, but many more fell under the tomahawk. Pontiac did not finally yield till 1766.

Summary.—1. In 1756 Lord Loudoun was sent from England to take command in America. He blundered badly, accomplishing nothing, while Montcalm, the French General, captured Oswego.

2. In the next year Loudoun made a fruitless expedition against Louisburg, taking with him the troops needed to defend New York Montcalm seized the opportunity and captured Fort William Henry on Lake George.

3. In 1757 William Pitt came into power in England. He determined to drive the French completely out of America, and sent able generals to accomplish that purpose. These took Louisburg, Fort Duquesne, and Fort Frontenac, but an expedition against Crown Point and Ticonderoga failed.

4. In 1759 General Amherst took Crown Point and Ticonderoga and General Wolfe captured Quebec. A year later Montreal was taken, and all Canada was surrendered to the British.

5. By the treaty which ended the war in 1763, France gave up all her territory east of the Mississippi, except the City of New Orleans and a small region near it. Spain gave Florida to the Britsh, and France ceded New Orleans and all the territory west of the Mississippi to Spain.

6. In the same year the Indians in the West, led by Pontiac, went to war against the English colonies. Many settlers were slain, but after a year peace was made.

Collateral Reading.—Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 45-50, 61-70; Parkman's "Montcalm and Wolfe," I., 289-311, 490-513.

TRAITS OF COLONIAL LIFE

CHAPTER XIX

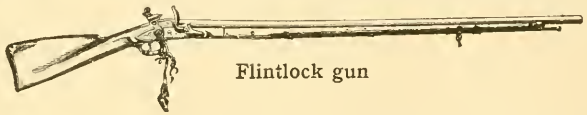
WARFARE BETWEEN INDIANS AND WHITE MEN

Arms of the Colonists.—When America was settled, armor was still in use in Europe, and some of the colonists went out to fight the nimble Indians, wearing metal head pieces, breast and back plates, or buff coats made of leather. Such defensive armor was found to be worse than useless in fighting Indians, and the colonists gradually laid it aside. At first the white men had an advantage over the Indians in having firearms. The savages must fight with bows and arrows and stone hatchets. But the Indians soon managed to get guns. There were always laws against selling firearms to Indians, but such laws were always broken by unscrupulous traders.

Colonist in armor

Matchlock Guns.—Some of the guns of the colonists were matchlocks. When a soldier wished to fire such a gun, he placed a forked rest in front of him, and laid the gun between its prongs. He then set off the powder in the lock with a lighted fuse or match. Friction matches had not been invented at that time, and each soldier had to carry a burning fuse or slow match. If his fuse went out he had to run to a fire and relight it. There came into use a newer kind of gun, called a flintlock, which required no fuse. In it the pulling of a trigger caused a flint to strike a piece of steel, producing sparks which set off the powder. This was a great im-

Matchlock gun



Flintlock gun

provement on the matchlock. Another clumsy weapon used by the colonists as late as King Philip's War was the pike or spear.

Causes of War.—It had always been the custom of the Indians to hold a whole tribe responsible for the acts of anyone belonging to it. On the same principle the savage held that if a white man did him an injury he had a right to revenge himself on any white person he could find, man, woman, or child. The Indians were often cheated by white traders. There were also many misunderstandings and quarrels between them and the less prudent among the white men, and the colonists were always in danger of attacks growing out of such disputes.

Blockhouse

In small settlements the white men often carried their arms to church with them. In exposed places blockhouses were built, where all the families in the neighborhood might take refuge in case of alarm.

In many settlements fierce dogs were kept for defense against Indians, and for tracking and catching them.

After suffering many disasters the colonists adopted Indian methods of warfare, lying in ambush, marching in scattering lines, and firing from behind trees. In the northern colonies they learned to put their men on snowshoes in winter, as the Indians did. A scout would sometimes make himself a cap and body-covering of green leaves in order that he might watch the savages from the bushes without being seen by them.

Indian Captivity.—The great terror of colonial life was Indian captivity. Hundreds of white people were carried into the wilderness by savage captors. Some of these escaped and returned to their homes; many more were slain. During the French and Indian War the French bought from the Indians their English captives, and sold them back again to their families when peace came.

The Indians often adopted captives into their tribes and treated them well. Some white children who were thus adopted grew up to like the savage life.

Summary.—1. The first colonists wore armor made of metal and leather. They were armed with matchlocks; later flintlocks were used.

2. The Indians took their revenge for injuries on any white man they met. The colonists learned the Indian methods of warfare.

3. Captives seldom returned from the Indians. Some children were adopted and lived as Indians.

Collateral Reading. — Parkman's "A Half Century of Conflict," II., 48-51, 249-258; Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 72-75; Eggleston and Seelye's "Brant and Red Jacket," 118-125.

CHAPTER XX

LIVING AND GETTING A LIVING

Farming in the Colonies.—At first the early colonists wasted their time hunting for gold and for a passage to India. A little later they learned that the real wealth of America lay in the productions of its soil. They therefore set themselves to farming. Their farming plans were sometimes as wild and absurd as had been their plans for getting to India or finding gold. Instead of wheat and corn, they tried to grow wine, silk, madder, coffee, tea, olives, and the plant called cacao,

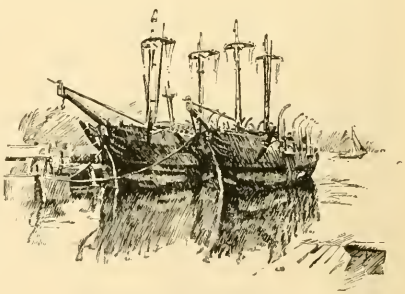
Colonial plow

from the nuts of which chocolate is made. Some of these things were tried even in the cold climate of New England, as well as in the colonies farther south.

Colonial wagon

The colonists soon got corn from the Indians. It was unknown in Europe. It was raised everywhere in the colonies, but especially in Virginia and North Carolina, from which it was sold to New England trading ships and carried to the West Indies. New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania became the great wheat-growing regions of that time. These colonies sent wheat and flour and hard-tack bread to the West Indies and to the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. Many thousands of great country wagons were employed in bringing grain to Philadelphia. Maryland and Virginia raised tobacco as their staple. North Carolina depended on tar, turpentine, rosin, and the like. South Carolina and Georgia raised chiefly rice and indigo.

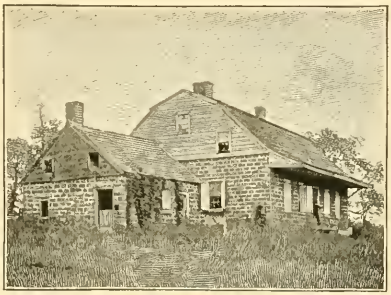
Many efforts were made in vain to find some staple crop suited to the New England climate and soil. But if New England did not lend itself to fruitful agriculture, its waters were full of cod and mackerel, and fishing became the chief employment of its people. Young men trained to the sea in following the fishing trade became expert sailors, while the carpenters of that region learned to build good ships. In these ships the New England sailors



Old whaleships

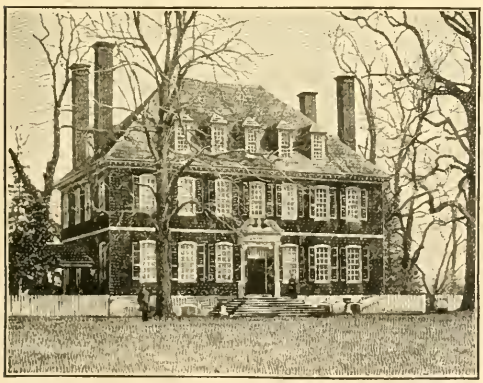
carried on trade with pretty nearly all the ports in the world, and they presently became the most expert of all whalers.

Cattle, Hogs, and Horses.—Hogs were very early brought to the colonies, where they found abundant food in the rich nut crops of the American woods. They multiplied rapidly, and many of them ran at large in the forest. Many cattle also were suffered to go wild in the woods, and it was a favorite sport to hunt them. The horses used in the colonies were of a small breed, but they were strong and hardy. Many of them escaped into the swamps and forests, and thus started a race of wild horses in America.

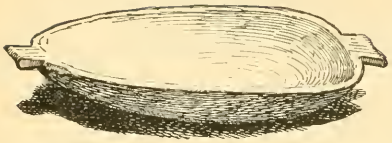


Old Dutch house

Houses.—The houses of some of the first settlers were very rude. Sometimes they dug holes in the ground and used them as dwellings. In some places bark wigwams were built, like those of the Indians. When New York consisted of thirty houses, twenty-nine of them were of bark. As time went on, men built better houses, some of hewed logs, and some of planks split or sawed out by hand. The chimneys were very large, with fireplaces so spacious



Old Virginia mansion

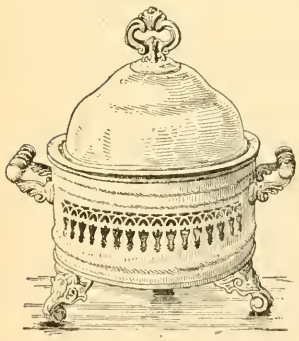


Wooden tray

that great logs could be rolled into them after being hauled into the houses by horses. In the early houses most of the windows had paper instead of glass, which was too expensive for common use. The paper thus used was oiled to let the light through better. When rich people began to come to this country, they built very good houses, some of which remain in use to-day.

Furniture.—For the most part the furniture was rough, and there was not much of it. Benches, stools, and tables were homemade, except in the houses of the rich. Beds were filled with moss or the down from the plant called cat-tail, or the feathers of wild pigeons. The poorer people brought their food to the table on trenchers, or trays, as their English forefathers had done for centuries before. They ate off wooden plates, and sometimes off square blocks of wood. Pewter dishes were used by those who could afford them. At the close of the colonial period china ware had taken the place of the metal dishes.

Kitchen fireplace

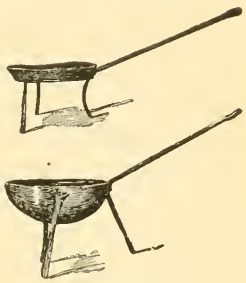


Pewter chafing-dish

In the houses of the very rich colonial people there was some silverware and some stately furniture; but carpets were rarely seen. The floors of the best rooms were strewn with sand. Wallpaper was not known until long after the beginning of the eighteenth century, but rich cloths and tapestries sometimes hung upon the walls of the finest houses.

Cooking.—A common way of cooking meat was by throwing it on the live

coals. The flavor of the ashes was thought to make it better. Meats were also roasted before the fire, on spits, or hung by strings from the ceiling. In the live coals of kitchen fireplaces was placed the skillet, a vessel two inches deep, and with legs three inches long. This and the griddle were used for baking corn bread.



Skillets

Another utensil made like the skillet, but deeper, and having no handle, was called an oven, and was used for baking wheaten bread. It was provided with loops or ears of iron at its sides, and was handled with hooks. The pots and kettles were hung over the fire upon a crane, or iron bar fastened to the chimney, and swinging in and out upon a kind of hinge. Sometimes a brick or stone oven was built in the side of the great chimney.

A colonial tea-party

The spit, spoken of above, was an iron rod that might be thrust through the roast. It was hung in different ways, sometimes on hooks in the andirons. A whole pig or fowl was often hung up before the fire, and turned about while roasting.

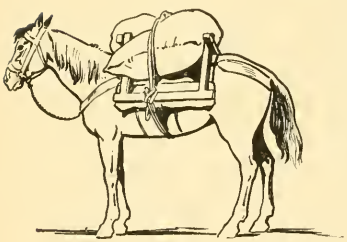
Tea, Coffee, Wine, etc.— Neither tea nor coffee was in general use in America until about 1725. Tea then became a very fashionable drink.

In proportion to the population more wine and

spirits were used in colonial days than in our times. Rum was much used, and the people in all the colonies drank a great deal of hard cider. There was much shameful drunkenness.

Dress.—Short breeches fastened at the knees were worn by men. Much lace and many silver buckles and buttons were worn on the clothing of the rich. Workingmen of all sorts wore breeches made of leather, buckskin, or coarse canvas. Trousers were also sometimes worn. In the country many men went barefoot in the summer.

Travel and Mails.—The first settlers traveled about in canoes and little sailing boats. On land Indian trails were at first the only roads. They could be traveled only on foot, or on horseback. Goods were carried on pack horses. When roads were made, wagons came into use. At the close of the colonial period it took six days for the mail to go from New York to Boston, and two or three days from New York to Philadelphia.



Pack horse

Education.—The schools were generally few and poor. There was little time for education. Boys, when taught at all, were taught to "read, write, and cast accounts." Needlework was thought to be a necessary part of a girl's education, but few girls in that time could write their names. There were few books and few newspapers until after 1700.

At first there were none but "pay schools." In 1647 Massachusetts made a law that there should be a school for teaching English in every town of fifty householders. After a time the other New England colonies made similar laws. At the close of the colonial period there were schools in all the leading towns, but no free schools such as we now have.

The first college in the country was Harvard, established

in 1636. The next was William and Mary, in Virginia, founded about the end of that century. Yale College, which dates from the beginning of the eighteenth century, is the next in age.

A needlework sampler

Social Life.—In the Middle and Southern colonies, the people were fond of horse racing, cockfighting, and other rude sports brought from England. In New England the people made a holiday of their militia muster, feasting, fighting sham battles, and playing rough games. In all the colonies dancing parties were common. Weddings were occasions of much feasting, and sometimes of hard drinking. In some cases the feasting continued for several days. Even funerals were marked by heavy drinking. In all the colonies there was much hunting and fishing. Coasting on the snow, skating and sleighing were first introduced by the Dutch settlers of New York.

Summary.—1. Corn soon became the leading farm crop in the colonies; but wheat was raised in the middle colonies. Fishing and trade by sailing vessels were followed in New England.

2. The dwellings were rude with huge fireplaces and papered windows. The furniture was largely homemade. The dishes were of wood and pewter.

3. Cooking was done by the open fire with spits, skillets, pots, and kettles. Tea and coffee were unknown to the first settlers.

4. Travel was at first mostly by water. The Indian trails became paths, and later wagon roads were built.

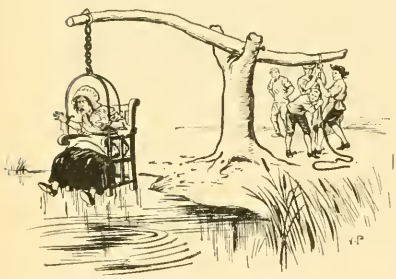
5. Schools were few and poor.

Collateral Reading.—Walker's "The Making of the Nation," 66-72, McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," I., 16-26, 70-74, 95-97; Roosevelt's "New York," 32, 33, 92-96.

CHAPTER XXI

LAWS AND PUNISHMENTS; BOND SERVANTS AND SLAVES; PIRATES

Sunday Laws.—In all the colonies there were rigid Sunday laws, but they were not enforced so strictly in some colonies as in others. In New England the Sunday laws and a law requiring people to go to church were enforced to the letter. The Sabbath was supposed to begin on Saturday evening, and everybody must observe it strictly. In Massachusetts nobody was allowed to walk in the streets on Sunday except in going to and from church.



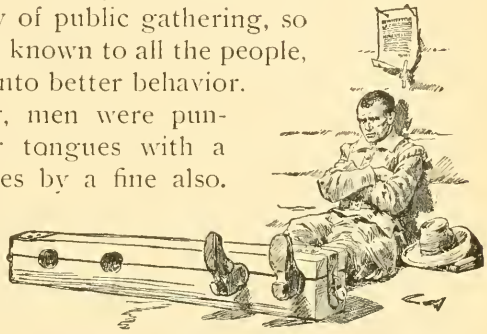
Ducking stool

Punishments.—In the colonies the laws dealt severely with women who were too free with their tongues. In Virginia an attempt was made to enforce an old English law against scolding and slander, which directed that any woman guilty of those offenses should be fastened to a ducking stool and dipped into a pond of water. In New England such women were gagged and made to sit at their own doors, "for all comers and goers to gaze at." Drunkards were required to wear a red letter "D" hung from their necks.

A scold, gagged

For some offenses men were placed in the stocks with head and hands and feet held fast, while boys and men pelted them with eggs. This punishment was usually inflicted on a day of public gathering, so that the culprit should be known to all the people, and perhaps be shamed into better behavior.

For profane swearing, men were punished by pinching their tongues with a split stick, and sometimes by a fine also. For worse offenses men were whipped on the bare back, or branded in the hand with a hot iron, or had their ears cropped. For very great crimes the more cruel punishments of burning alive or hanging in chains were sometimes, though very rarely, inflicted.



A form of stocks

Witchcraft.—The belief in witchcraft everywhere prevailed in the early colonial days. When the housewife could not make her butter "come" by churning, she would drop red-hot horseshoes into the churn "to burn the witches out." If the pigs were sick, it was a sure sign that a witch was about, and the ears and tails of the pigs must be cut off and burned. People were sometimes arrested and tried for witchcraft in nearly all of the colonies as they were in England.

The Witchcraft at Salem.—In 1692 a fearful excitement broke out in Salem, Massachusetts. Some hysterical girls imagined that they were bewitched. They accused certain people of witchcraft. In answer to their complaints one hundred and fifty persons were arrested. Twenty of them were condemned and put to death.

The deluded girls finally brought their witchcraft charges against persons of high standing in the colony. This led to a halt in the prosecutions, and reason soon returned. The jurymen who had condemned "witches" publicly

begged pardon of their countrymen, and one of the judges who had passed sentences for witchcraft did penance by keeping a fast once a year as long as he lived. In this country there has never since been an execution for witchcraft, and soon after the Salem outbreak, the belief in witches died out in England.

Persecution for Religion.—In the early colonial days it was everywhere thought to be right and necessary to regulate religious beliefs, and to persecute those who differed in religion from the majority of the people in the country or colony in which they lived. Nearly every colony had some sort of law to regulate men's religious belief. In Virginia—in the early days, at least—only the Church of England form of worship was allowed. In Massachusetts and Connecticut the Puritan form of worship was the only one allowed by law. Those who advocated other doctrines and forms were whipped and banished.

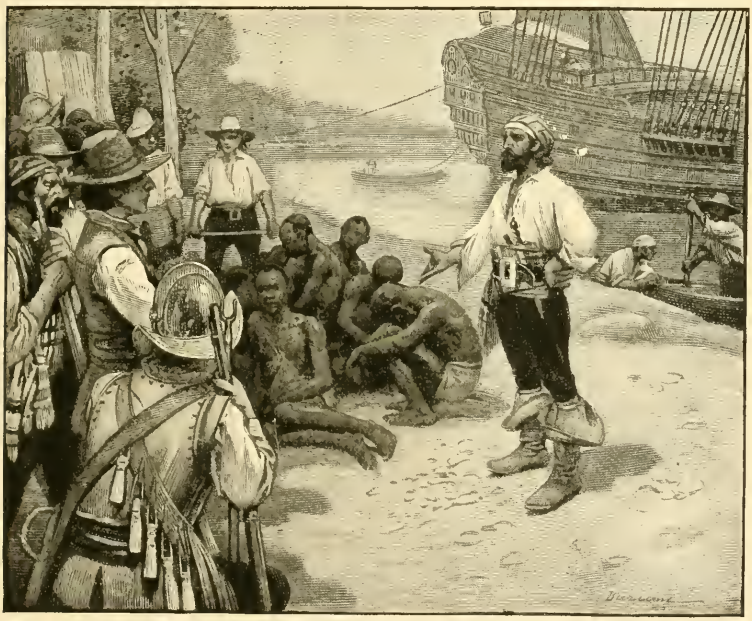
In Maryland, Lord Baltimore gave religious liberty to all who believed in Christ. In Rhode Island, Roger Williams succeeded in impressing his doctrine of "soul-liberty" upon the laws. He included Hebrews and unbelievers equally with Christians in his toleration. In Pennsylvania, where the Friends, or Quakers, were in control, there was full liberty of belief. Persecution ceased in all the colonies before the time of the Revolution.

Bond Servants or Redemptioners.—Poor people were held very cheap in England in that day, and grave abuses resulted from the fact. Criminals, indentured servants, vagrant children, and others were sold, for terms of from four to ten years, as servants to the colonists in America. Imprisonment for debt was common, and to escape it men in debt often sold themselves. Innocent men and boys were sometimes kidnaped and brought to America to be sold as bond servants.

But not all the bond servants sold to the colonies were victims of such outrages. Many poor men were persuaded to go out of their own accord, or as "free willers," as the

phrase then went. Thousands of servants were sent out in this way every year.

If a bond servant happened to fall into kindly hands, his life might be endurable enough. But if he fell into the hands of the hard hearted, there was nothing for him but to wait as patiently as he could for the time when he should be free and could claim what the law allowed him, namely



The first negro slaves in Virginia

a hoe, an ax, and a suit of clothes. Some bond servants, who were educated men, afterwards rose to wealth, but most of them remained in poverty after they got out of bondage.

Negro Slaves. —The negroes which a Dutch ship sold at Jamestown in 1619 were the first black slaves in our country. It was not thought wrong at that time to enslave negroes, as they were heathen. For seventy-five

years after that most of the work in Virginia was done by white bond servants, but when the price of tobacco became high, and the cultivation of rice and indigo were introduced in the southern colonies, negro slaves came into demand. There were never a great many of them in New England, and such as there were were kept mostly as house servants.

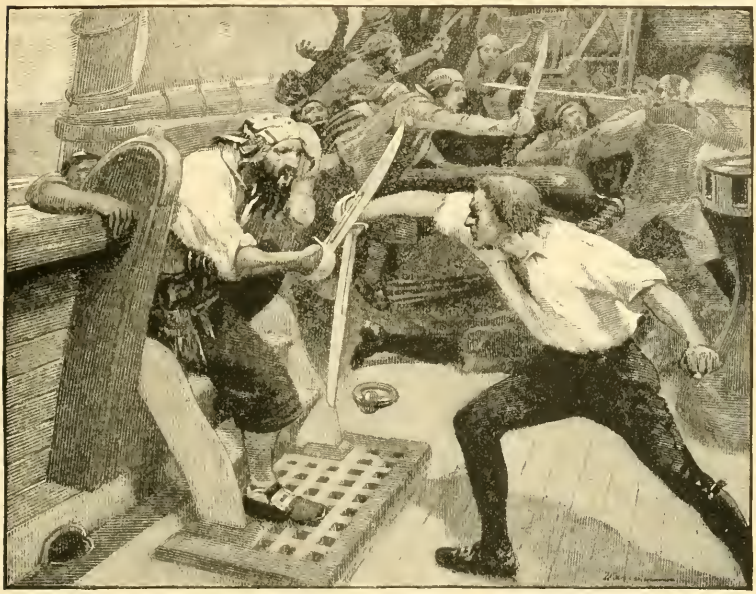
There were many negroes in New York and Philadelphia, but not many in the country regions round about, where wheat was the principal crop. Wheat did not require much hard labor. Rice, tobacco, and indigo were the crops for which the negroes were needed. After the Revolution slavery was gradually given up in the North, where slave labor was not profitable.

Pirates.—A little before 1700 the seas became infested with pirates. Their number was often swelled by the desperadoes among the convict servants whom they captured. The pirate James, having run short of men, lay off the Virginia coast and captured transport ships. Many of the men in such ships preferred to risk hanging in a career of piracy, which was called sailing "upon the grand account," rather than pine in colonial slavery.

One of the earliest efforts to put down the pirates was made in 1696, when Captain Kidd was sent out in the "Adventure" from Plymouth, England, to find fame and fortune in destroying them. Failing to find any pirates, Kidd turned pirate himself, and after a long career of crime was arrested in Boston and sent to London, where he was found guilty of the murder of one of his seamen and was hanged.

Massachusetts and Virginia sternly set their faces against piracy; the other colonies, with their habits of resisting customs officers, fell into an easier way of regarding it. One of the Boston pirates, named Fly, was left hanging in chains in full view of all mariners "to be a spectacle, and so a warning to others."

In 1718 the Governor of Virginia sent Lieutenant Maynard to capture the pirate Blackbeard, who was hiding



Blackbeard boarding Maynard's ships

in Ocracoke Inlet, on the coast of North Carolina. A desperate battle followed. Blackbeard stationed one of his men by his powder-room, with a lighted match in his hand, and ordered him to blow up the ship if Maynard should capture her. The pirates swarmed over the sides of Maynard's vessel and fought hand to hand with cutlass and pistol. At last, after a desperate fight, Blackbeard was slain, and with great difficulty Maynard's men prevented his pirate followers from blowing up the ship. Maynard hung Blackbeard's head to the bowsprit and sailed back to James River in triumph.

About the same time, Col. Rhett, of Charles Town, South Carolina, was sent out with two armed ships to chase the pirate Stede Bonnet, and found him in Cape Fear River. After a severe fight, Rhett captured Bonnet and his piratical crew and carried them to Charles Town, where they were soon hanged.

Encouraged by Col. Rhett's success, Governor Johnson, of South Carolina, also went hunting for pirates with a fleet of four vessels. At the mouth of Charles Town harbor he found two pirate ships, and a savage fight took place. The pirate captain, Moody, was killed and the crews surrendered. The captured pirates were taken into Charles Town, where they met their fate. These and similar affairs made piracy less attractive than it had been, and a few years later robbery on the high seas well nigh ceased.

Summary.—1. Most of the colonies had rigid Sunday laws. In New England these laws were strictly enforced.

2. In colonial times, minor legal punishments were more severe than they are to-day, and included ducking or gagging of scolds, locking in a pillory, whipping, branding in the hand with a hot iron, and cropping of the ears.

3. Nearly everybody believed in witchcraft in early colonial times. People resorted to many silly devices to keep witches away. In 1692, at Salem, Massachusetts, twenty people accused of witchcraft were put to death.

4. In Virginia in the early days only the Church of England form of worship was allowed. In Massachusetts and Connecticut only the Puritan religion was tolerated. In Maryland all forms of Christian belief were permitted. In Rhode Island and Pennsylvania there was entire religious liberty. Persecution had ceased in all the colonies before the Revolution.

5. Many white people in England were sent out to America and sold as servants. For many years there were very few slaves in the colonies. But the need of laborers in the South to raise rice and indigo brought negro slaves into demand, and they were brought to this country in great numbers. After the Revolution slavery was gradually given up in the Northern States, where free labor was more profitable.

6. About 1700 the seas on this side of the ocean were infested with pirates. In some of the colonies piracy was looked upon as not altogether criminal, but Virginia and Massachusetts made war upon it from the beginning, as other colonies did later. After a few years piracy became too dangerous, even for desperadoes, and it died out.

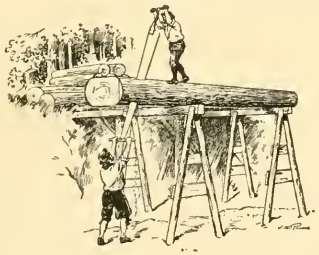
Collateral Reading.—Stockton's "Buccaneers and Pirates of Our Coasts," 200-242, 309-319; Roosevelt's "New York," 76-78; Eggleston's "The Transit of Civilization," 294-307.

CHAPTER XXII

COLONIAL INDUSTRIES

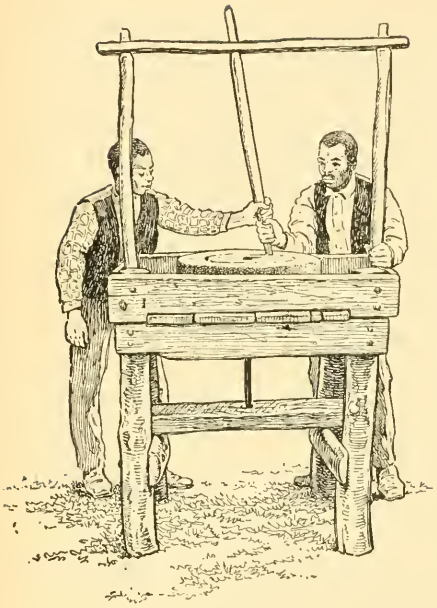
Early Condition.—The object of England in planting the American colonies was to provide a market for her own manufactures. It was, therefore, thought wrong for colonists to make or sell anything that the mother country made for export. At first the colonists in America were too busy in getting necessary food and shelter and in defending themselves against the Indians to do much else. They depended on England for most of the things that they needed.

House Building.—Before the year 1768 there was not a single sawmill in all England. Logs were sawed into lumber or into boards by the labor of men. The log was placed on high trestles or over a saw pit. One man stood on the top of the log to pull the long saw up; another stood below to pull it down. One of the first needs of the settlers in America was shelter. Woods covered the whole face of the land. The first houses were built of logs more or less shaped by the ax; boards were then sawed in the English way for inside finish; but before 1690 sawmills were erected on nearly every rapid stream, and the materials for building wooden houses were easily obtained and sawed lumber was exported.



Sawing boards

Grinding Corn and Wheat.—The white people often pounded corn into meal or hominy, after the manner of the Indians. But generally, in the earlier days, corn and



Hand mill

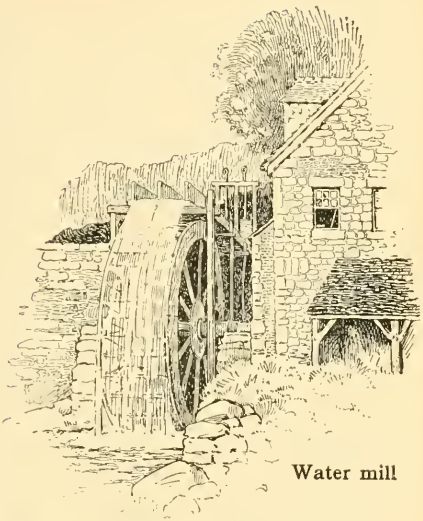
wheat were ground in little handmills called querns. Windmills and horse mills became common. Cattle were also used to run such mills. Mills were sometimes built at the mouths of small streams, where the tide in ebbing and flowing turned their wheels. People in the colonies walked long distances, carrying their grain on their backs to have it ground. After a while the ordinary water mill, turned by a waterfall, or by the force of a stream, took the place of other kinds.

Near every large mill in the middle colonies there stood a bakery and a cooper's shop, and many thousands of barrels of hardtack and flour were shipped to the West Indies and to the countries on the Mediterranean Sea.

Colonial Shipbuilding.—Shipbuilding as a pursuit did not begin until after 1640. The rise of the Puritans to power in England stopped emigration for a time. There were no newcomers to buy provisions, which fell to almost nothing in price. In these circumstances, Hugh Peters, who was

Windmill

pastor of the church at Salem, urged the people to adopt shipbuilding as a pursuit. Ships built in Salem and in Boston were sent voyaging to the West Indies, the Mediterranean, and England, and soon shipbuilding became a great trade, particularly in New England. Philadelphia was also celebrated for her fine ships. When the Revolution broke out, New England is said to have had one ship afloat for every one hundred inhabitants.



Water mill

Old iron furnace, near Warwick, N. Y.

Iron Works.—In Massachusetts an inferior kind of iron for tools was made of bog ore in 1643 or 1644, and after that time iron works sprang up in most of the colonies and particularly in New Jersey.

The early iron works were what are known as bloomeries, where wrought iron is made from the ore. The first blast furnace in the colonies was established in Virginia in 1724. A blast furnace was more elaborate than a bloomery.

Other colonies adopted it soon afterwards.

In spite of the English law the colonists made for themselves andirons, chimney backs, fenders, hearth plates, pots, kettles, skillets, mortars, rollers for gardeners, "boxes" for cart wheels, and other things of which they had daily need.

The making of nails by hammering them out on an anvil, the only method then known, was a home industry, especially in New England.

Spinning wool

Spinning flax

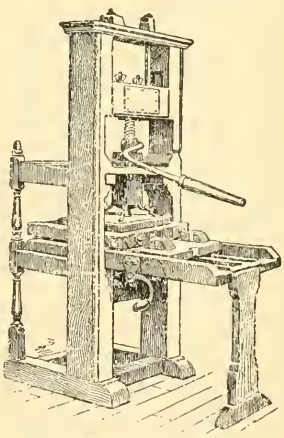
Material for Clothing.— When the immigration fell off, and the labor of the settlers brought them little or no money with which to buy English goods, it became necessary for them to make cloth for themselves. Their sheep supplied wool, they cultivated hemp and flax, and cotton was brought from the Barbadoes. Nearly every house had a spinning wheel, and many of them had looms. The boys and girls were taught to spin and weave.

The first cloth made was very coarse—mere tow cloth. Outer garments were made of linsey-woolsey.

After a time England tried to stop cloth making in America. But sheep were raised for their wool. A single town in Connecticut kept a stock of two thousand of the animals, and paid all the town's expenses from the proceeds.

The Germans who settled in Pennsylvania, about 1690, introduced the spinning and weaving of very fine linen, and later the Scotch-Irish settlers in all the colonies had great skill in spinning fine linen thread on small wheels run by a foot treadle.

Paper Making.—The first paper mill in the colonies was established near Germantown, toward the close of the seventeenth century. More than thirty years later the purchase of rags and the manufacture of paper began to spread throughout the colonies.



An early printing press

Printing.—The first printing press in the country was set up at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1639. Before the close of the colonial period there were printing presses in all the colonies, and newspapers and books were published, mostly in Boston and Philadelphia.

Tanning.—Tanning was begun very early, but the leather was used chiefly for clothing. Shoes were brought from England. When cattle became cheap, more and more leather and shoes were made here. Before the Revolution no morocco was made in this country, and little calfskin was used. Most of the shoes were made of cowhide, and were worn by the laboring people. Fine shoes were still brought from England.

Summary.—1. The colonists at first depended on England for most of the manufactures they needed.

2. The first houses were built of logs, and the boards used were sawed by hand as was then done in England. Later sawmills were built.

3. In the earlier days grain was sometimes pounded into meal in mortars, but it was more generally ground in little hand mills. A little later windmills and mills turned by horses came into use. Still later water mills took the place of these.

4. The colonists built boats and small ships almost from the first, but shipbuilding did not become general till 1640.

5. Iron works were begun very early, and the colonists made such tools as they could out of the metal produced at home. The first blast furnace for making good iron was set up in Virginia in 1724.

6. The materials for clothing were first brought from England, but later the colonists made cloth. The Germans and Scotch-Irish taught the colonists how to spin linen thread and make delicate linen fabrics.

7. The first paper mill in America was established at Germantown between 1690 and 1700. The first printing press in America was set up at Cambridge, 1639. The first tannery was opened very early in colonial history.

Collateral Reading.—McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," I., 9, 10, 61-64.

THE REVOLUTION

CHAPTER XXIII

CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION

A Family Quarrel.—England and her American colonies had a standing quarrel; but it was only a family quarrel. Usually the royal governors sent over were men who came to America to build up fortunes for themselves, and they found many ways of doing so—by bribery and extortion, cheating the king on the one hand and the people on the other. The Americans generally wished to keep out African slaves, but the people about the English court, and even the royal family itself, had an interest in the trade, and all the laws made by the colonists to prevent the bringing of negro slaves into America were annulled in England. Another cause of dispute was the fact that England sent many of her criminals to this country as bond servants.

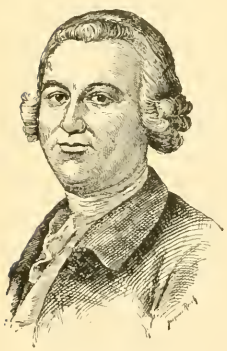
The colonists often evaded the English laws against manufacturing and made things for themselves, but in the main they got used to the law and submitted to it.

Trade Laws.—In order to understand one of the chief causes of discontent in America we must go back to the year 1651. In that year a law was passed in England which seriously interfered with the trade and prosperity of the colonists. This law was called the Navigation Act. It was intended to compel the colonists to sell their products only to England, and to buy there whatever they needed. Another law, called the Sugar and Molasses Act, was made in 1733, which imposed a heavy duty, or tax, on sugar and molasses brought from any place except Great Britain or

the British Indies. It was intended to destroy the large and profitable colonial trade with the French West Indies.

Laws Not Enforced.—None of these laws were effective. For more than one hundred years the colonists found means of evading them. It came to be thought entirely respectable to carry on an unlawful trade. Even the most religious merchants thought it no harm to evade the laws made in England, and get their goods into this country without paying the heavy duties imposed upon them.

Writs of Assistance.—Just at the close of the great French and Indian War George III. became king of England. His ministers made an effort to enforce the trade laws. The British commissioner of customs at Boston asked a court of Massachusetts for a writ of assistance. This writ was a search warrant, authorizing the officer to search the house of the person named in it for smuggled goods; but the writ was usually issued with a space left blank for the name of the person against whom it was to be used. The officer could write in the name of any person he chose.



James Otis

James Otis,* an eloquent Boston lawyer and a patriot, was at that time the government advocate-general, and it was his official duty to argue in favor of these writs. Rather than do so he resigned his office and spoke eloquently for five hours against the writs, for the first time raising the cry that "taxation without representation is tyranny," which was echoed throughout the land. The court was obliged to issue the writs of assistance because the law required it to do so, but all attempts to search men's houses under their authority were resisted.

This effort to enforce the trade and navigation acts was the first step of a new British policy in the management of the colonies. They were to be brought under the control

* For biography, see Appendix.

of the British Parliament, or law-making body, though the colonists were not allowed to send any representative to Parliament to take a part in making the laws. They were willing enough to tax themselves for all public needs, but they were not willing to be taxed by anybody else.

The Stamp Act.—Not long after George III. became king it was decided to send an army of ten thousand British soldiers to America. The declared purpose of this was to defend the colonies; but as there were no enemies of the colonists on this continent, except the Indians, the people here were not deceived. They understood quite clearly that the object of sending these troops was to enforce against the colonists the laws made in England to which they were so opposed.

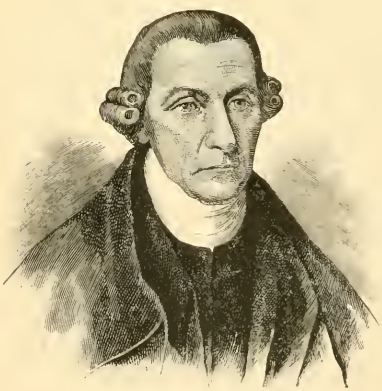
Moreover, it was decided in England that after the first year these soldiers should be paid and supported out of taxes levied upon the colonies by Parliament. In order to get the money for this it was proposed in England to require the colonists to write all their deeds, notes, and other documents, and to print all their newspapers upon paper on which the government had printed stamps. These stamps were to be paid for by the people using the paper, just as in our time the people have sometimes been required to pay taxes to the government by buying stamps and attaching them to documents. But there was this difference: the stamp taxes levied in our day were levied by a Congress elected by the people of this country, while the laws levying such a tax upon the colonists were passed by the British Parliament, in which they had no voice at all. This is what James Otis meant when he raised the cry against "taxation without representation."

The Americans bitterly resented and opposed all such taxation, and when they heard that a stamp act was to be passed they grew greatly excited. They sent protests to London and humble petitions to the king, in which they set forth their rights as Englishmen. But their protests were not heeded. The Stamp Act was passed in March, 1765. It not only provided for collecting an unjust tax, but it

provided also that persons violating the law should be tried in a court where there was no jury. This the Americans regarded as another violation of their rights as Englishmen.

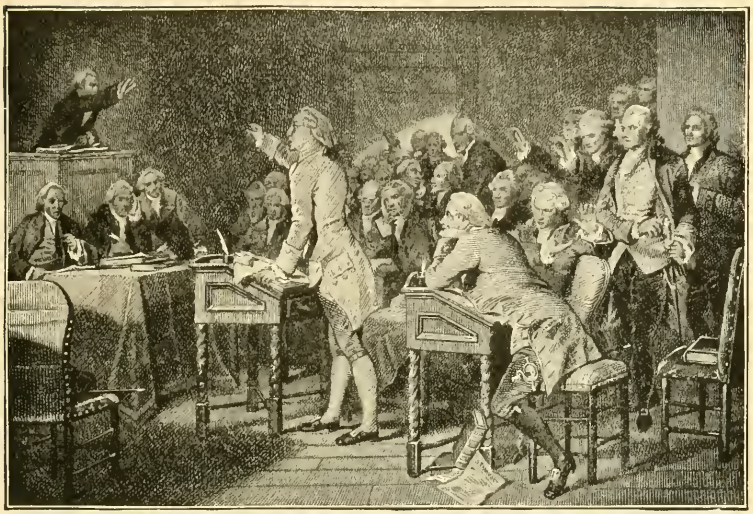
Resistance to the Stamp Act.—The Stamp Act was, in fact, not nearly so harmful to the colonists as the decision of the British government to enforce the laws that restricted trade. But the Stamp Act was good ground to fight on. The colonists could hardly make their fight for the right to smuggle goods, although they had been doing that for more than a hundred years. But their right to tax themselves and not to be taxed by anybody else was a doctrine that they might stand on. As the time for the enforcement drew near, therefore, the cry went up throughout the colonies, "No taxation without representation."

There was much mob violence. In New York the governor's coach was burned, and a mob tore down the theater as a place where the wealthy and those who took the English side in the dispute were accustomed to assemble. Boston was particularly violent. There the customs officers were obliged to take refuge on board the British ships. In South Carolina the people seized Fort Johnson, where the stamped paper was stored, and sent the whole of it back to England. Not a single stamp was sold in all America.



Patrick Henry

Patrick Henry. — In 1763 there was a trial in Virginia of what was called the "parsons' cause." The English Church was established by law in that colony, and the parsons of that church were paid for their services in tobacco taken as a tax from the people. But in 1758 tobacco was very high in price, and the Virginia legislature passed a law that the clergy should be paid in money, at the rate of two



Patrick Henry addressing the Virginia Assembly

pence for each pound of tobacco due. On petition of the parsons the king annulled the act. The clergy claimed their full number of pounds of tobacco regardless of price.

When this was refused, the clergy brought a suit in the courts, claiming damages, and a young lawyer named Patrick Henry * appeared in behalf of the people. In arguing this case he put aside all fine-spun legal quibbles, and plunged at once into an eloquent plea for the rights of the American people. Referring to the policy by which George III. was planning to oppress the colonists, he declared that the king had "degenerated into a tyrant, and forfeited all right to his subjects' obedience." Henry's eloquence so moved the court and the jury that they gave the parsons only one penny as damages. Henry was the hero of the hour. Soon afterward the young orator was chosen to fill a vacancy in the Virginia House of Burgesses. He waited for a time in the hope that some more experienced member would take up the subject of the Stamp Act,

* For biography, see Appendix.

but as none did so, Henry came forward with six bold and striking resolutions. These declared, among other things, that the people of Virginia had a right to govern themselves, and that they could not lawfully be taxed except under laws made by their own legislature. In the course of his splendid speech on these resolutions Henry uttered the famous words, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—as the orator reached this point the presiding officer cried, "Treason," and others echoed the cry. Henry finished his sentence by saying, "may profit by their example." Then he added, "If this be treason, make the most of it."

The Stamp Act Congress.—During the excitement over the Stamp Act a congress to consider measures of resistance to it was called to meet in New York, October 7, 1765. It was composed of delegates from nine colonies, among whom were some of the most eminent men in America. The congress adopted a declaration of rights and grievances. It firmly asserted the rights of the colonists to make all laws taxing themselves. It declared that this privilege and trial by jury were rights belonging to every British subject. At the same time it expressed affection for the king and declared the desire of the colonists to remain his subjects.

Repeal of the Stamp Act.—As it was obvious that the Stamp Act could not be enforced, it was repealed in 1766. The colonists rejoiced greatly. They did not mind the declaration that accompanied the repeal, which was "that Parliament has power to legislate for the colonists in all cases whatsoever." This assertion, of course, carried with it the claim of Parliament to levy taxes on this country at will, but the colonists laughed at a claim which the British had tried in vain to assert and enforce.

The Townshend Acts.—During the next year some new laws were made in England which the colonists bitterly resented. These laws were called the Townshend Acts. They required the colonists to pay a duty, or tax, on

all paper, painters' colors, lead, and tea which ships might bring into America. A Board of Customs was established at Boston to collect these duties. After a while the British government stationed two regiments of soldiers at Boston to assist the customs officers in enforcing the law. The soldiers were quartered on the people, who were required to feed and house them.

The Boston Massacre.—The people grew greatly excited over all this. They objected to the duties, as they had ob-

The Boston Massacre

jected to the Stamp Act, because these were taxes imposed upon the colonists without their consent. Still more they resented the sending of troops to Boston, and regarded it as a kind of threat. In the excitement over these things many outbreaks occurred, and finally, on March 5, 1770, the rioting became so violent that a few soldiers in self-defense fired upon the people, killing several of them and wounding others.

This was called the "Boston Massacre." It roused the people of Boston to frenzy. A town meeting of three thousand people was held at once, and Samuel Adams was sent to the governor and council to demand the removal of the troops from the city. Having made his demand, Adams said to the governor, "There are three thousand people in yonder town meeting; the country is rising; the night is falling, and we must have our answer." Fearing a further uprising of the people, the authorities sent the soldiers to one of the islands in the harbor.

The Destruction of the "Gaspee."—An armed British ship called the "Gaspee" had been sent to Narragansett Bay to seize smuggling vessels. The "Gaspee" went aground (1772), and a mob led by a prominent merchant of Providence set fire to her. The British government sent a commission of inquiry, with orders to arrest the men engaged in this affair, and to try them without a jury. But the Chief Justice, Stephen Hopkins, ordered that not a man of them should be taken out of the colony.

The Boston Tea Party

First Step toward the Union of the Colonies.— In March, 1773, the Virginia House of Burgesses appointed a committee of correspondence to communicate with the other colonies, and secure unity of action between them with regard to British claims and wrongs. This was the first step toward a union of the colonies. Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and South Carolina all openly expressed their gratitude to Virginia for taking this step, and responded to her suggestion by appointing committees on their own account.

The Tax on Tea.—In the meantime the Townshend Acts had been repealed, except that a small duty on tea was retained. This was done more for the sake of asserting the British right to tax the colonies than for the sake of the money that the tax was expected to yield.

But the colonists were determined not to pay any tax levied by any authority except their own. They refused to allow tea ships to unload. In some cases the ships were compelled to return to England with their cargoes; but the governor of Massachusetts, who represented the king there, refused to allow tea ships that had arrived at Boston to sail away again. He was determined that their tea should be landed. The people were equally determined that it should not be landed. A war whoop suddenly raised near the Old South Meeting House on December 16, 1773, was the signal for a company of Boston men disguised as Indians to board the ships, and to empty the tea—ninety thousand dollars' worth—into the harbor. This exploit was called the "Boston Tea Party." From New York and Philadelphia all the ships that brought tea were turned back. Tea sent to Charles Town, South Carolina, was unloaded and put into storehouses, where it lay for several years. It was finally sold, and the money applied to the public service.

The Four "Intolerable Acts."—When Parliament heard of the Boston Tea Party it grew angry, and passed several laws, usually reckoned at four, which were called the "Intolerable Acts."

One of these was the "Boston Port Bill." It forbade any coming or going of ships to or from Boston. This ruined many of the Boston merchants.

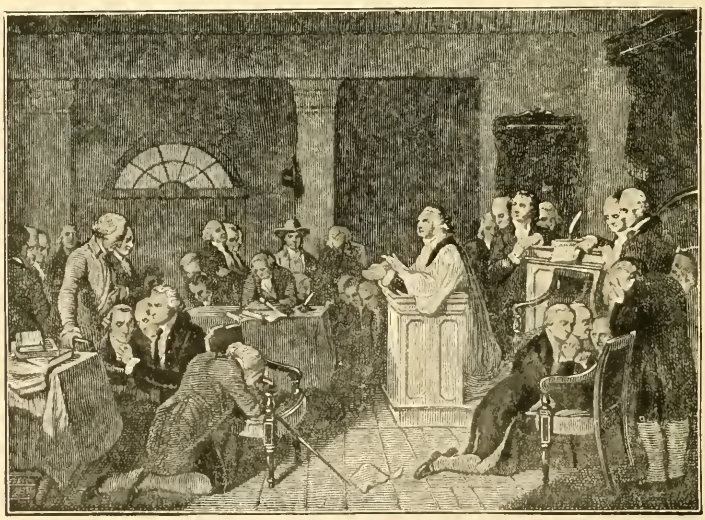
Another of the "Intolerable Acts" provided that men accused of committing murder in executing the laws in Massachusetts might be sent to England, or another colony than their own, for trial. This was intended to deprive Massachusetts of all restraint over English officers and soldiers stationed there, no matter what they did.

The third of the "Intolerable Acts" was called the "Massachusetts Bill." It changed the charter of the colony, set up a military governor, and in other ways robbed the Massachusetts people of their liberties.

The fourth act in the series was called the "Quebec Act." Quebec, or Canada, was governed by an absolute authority. The Quebec Act extended the borders of that province so that it should include all the territory south of the Great Lakes to the Ohio River. This took away from Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and Virginia vast territories claimed by them under early grants.

The colonists everywhere sympathized with their countrymen who suffered such wrongs. When the distressed condition of Boston was understood, help was sent from various colonies. Even from far-away South Carolina and Georgia there came the gifts of those who did not know how soon Boston's lot might be their own.

The First Continental Congress.—These oppressive "acts" led to the calling of a Continental Congress, which met



The First Continental Congress

at Philadelphia on September 5, 1774. All the colonies except Georgia sent delegates to the Congress, and Georgia was in full sympathy with the rest. From the beginning of the troubles, the people here and there in the various colonies had frequently agreed among themselves not to import British goods. Now all the colonies, by agreement in the Continental Congress, decided upon that course.

Nothing could have been more effective than such action as this. The agreement needed no law for its enforcement. Its effect was to deprive Great Britain of all the advantage that she hoped for in maintaining colonies. As Great Britain would not deal justly with America, America decided to depend on her own resources. She went to making her own cloths, and drinking tea made of sassafras flowers and roots. In the South the leaves of the yaupon and other shrubs were used instead of tea.

Summary.—1. England and the colonies quarreled almost from the beginning. Great Britain forced African slaves upon the colonies, and made hurtful laws, especially the laws to prevent manufacturing in the colonies and to interfere with their trade. For many years the colonists managed to evade these laws by smuggling and in other ways.

2. When George III. became king he made an effort to enforce the trade laws strictly. The colonists resisted, holding that a legislature in England in which they had no voice had no right to tax them.

3. Parliament passed the Stamp Act (1765). It required the colonists to pay a stamp tax on all documents and newspapers. But the colonists would not use the stamped paper, and not a single stamp was sold in all America.

4. In 1765 a congress of delegates from nine of the colonies met to consider plans of action. It adopted a declaration of rights and grievances, declared that the colonists alone had a right to make laws and impose taxes, and claimed for every accused person the right of trial by jury—a right which at that time was often denied to Americans.

5. The Stamp Act was repealed. But other equally bad laws were passed instead. On March 5, 1770, British soldiers in Boston fired upon the people, killing some of them.

6. In March, 1773, the Virginia legislature appointed a committee of correspondence to communicate with the other colonies and arrange

for united action in self-defense. The other colonies liked Virginia's suggestion, and acted upon it.

7. The laws taxing the colonies were repealed, but a small tax on tea was retained. The colonists refused to pay this tax. From some ports all tea ships were sent back to England with their cargoes. In Boston citizens threw the tea into the water. Tea sent to Charles Town, South Carolina, was put into storehouses, where it lay for several years.

8. These things angered the British, and they made four new laws for the injury of the colonies. One of these stopped all trade with Boston by forbidding ships to enter or leave the harbor. All the colonies treated this wrong to Boston as a wrong to themselves.

9. These things led to the calling of a Continental Congress, September 5, 1774, at which it was agreed that no British goods should be used in this country.

Collateral Reading.—Bancroft's "History of the United States," II., 444-453; Roosevelt's "New York," 105, 106.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE REVOLUTION IN NEW ENGLAND

The First Battle.—The struggle of the colonists for their rights had now lasted for ten years or more. From thinking of England as their "old home," they had gradually come to think of it as the home of their enemies. The province of Massachusetts Bay had two governments. General Gage had been appointed governor by the king; but his power, in fact, extended no further than the limits of Boston. The rest of the province was governed by a committee of safety, which had been appointed by the Massachusetts Provincial Congress. The committee was collecting arms wherever it could find them, and storing them.

In April, 1775, two of the Massachusetts leaders, Samuel Adams * and John Hancock * were hiding from Gage in the neighborhood of Lexington. On the night of April 18th, British troops were sent to Lexington and Concord to arrest Adams and Hancock. Paul Revere, an engraver, gave

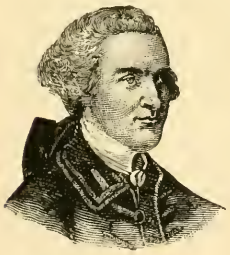
* For biography, see Appendix.

the alarm. He started at midnight, and galloped to Lexington and Concord to arouse the minutemen.

The minutemen were men enlisted and ready to rally at a minute's notice. At daylight the British came upon a company of them, drawn up in line at Lexington, and killed eight of them. The minutemen gave way, but not until they had wounded two or three of the British. Failing to find Adams and Hancock, the British moved on to Concord to destroy the stores collected there. Here another fight occurred, adding to the killed on both sides.

Samuel Adams

After two hours, the British commander set out for Boston, carrying his wounded in wagons. The minutemen followed him all the way to Boston, hovering about him like a swarm of angry hornets, and keeping up a galling fire from behind stone fences, and from every corner where a man could hide himself. In this running fight a large number of the British force were killed and wounded. That night the minutemen encamped at Cambridge, and others flocking to the scene of war joined them there. Messengers on horseback were sent in every direction to spread news of the battle. This was the beginning of war.



John Hancock

Capture of Fort Ticonderoga. — In the two forts on Lake Champlain there were many cannon and large quantities of powder—warlike stores much needed by the colonies. These forts were held by small British garrisons who felt secure in their remoteness. Benedict Arnold was commissioned by Massachusetts as colonel and authorized to enlist men for the capture of Fort Ticonderoga. When within thirty miles of the fort, with barely a dozen men, he met with Ethan Allen in command of a

The Battle of Lexington

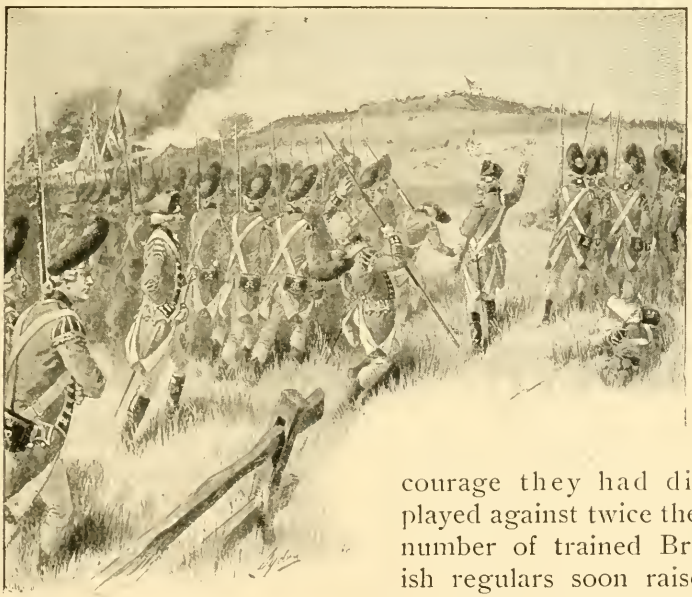
larger body of " Green Mountain Boys " bound on the same errand. Allen retained the command. At daybreak on the morning of May 10 less than a hundred men had crossed the lake; but Allen entered the fort with Arnold at his side, seized the sentinel at the gate and forced him to show the commandant's room. Allen roused this officer from his bed, and demanded the surrender of the fort " in the name of Jehovah and the Continental Congress." The fort was surrendered without loss of life. Crown Point was surprised and captured the same day by another small force of " Green Mountain Boys " under Seth Warner.

Bunker Hill.—Soon after the battle of Lexington, General Howe, General Clinton, and General Burgoyne, with fresh British troops, reached Boston, and on June 17, 1775, the battle of Bunker Hill was fought, a little way north of Boston. A detachment of Americans threw up some breastworks there, to cut off Boston from the country beyond. The British, led by General Howe, attacked them

in front, with a force nearly double their own. The Americans waited until the British were almost upon them before they fired. The order was, "Wait till you see the whites of their eyes."

When at last they fired, their volley sent the British column reeling back, broken and beaten. The British rallied, however, and came on again. Once more they were hurled back in death and disorder. A third time the British charged; and the Americans, running short of powder and having no bayonets to their fowling pieces, used the butts of their guns as clubs, and fought until compelled to retreat.

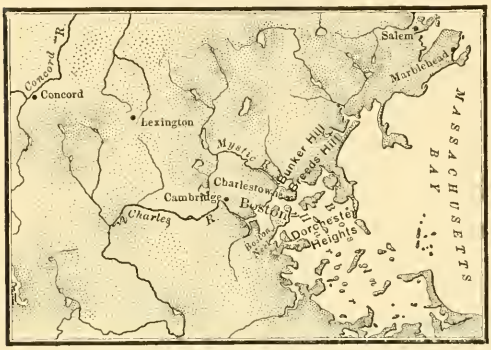
The Americans keenly felt their defeat at first, but the



Battle of Bunker Hill

courage they had displayed against twice their number of trained British regulars soon raised Bunker Hill in their minds to the dignity of a victory. General Joseph Warren was killed in this battle. He was one of the most devoted and able patriots in the land.

Washington Made Commander in Chief.—In May, 1775, the second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia, in what is now called Independence Hall. Thirteen colonies sent delegates to this Congress. It accepted the American forces around Boston as the Continental army, and on motion of John Adams,* of Massachusetts, it appointed the great Virginian, George Washington, to be "commander in chief of all the armies raised, or to be raised.



Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill

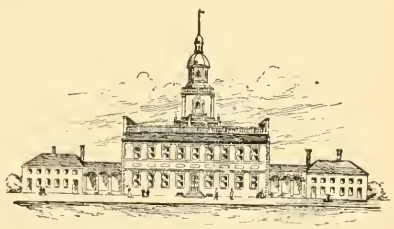
Washington had won a high place for himself in the minds of his countrymen by his courage and prudence in the French War. He declined all pay for his services, as he had done before, and as he always did afterwards, even when serving as President. He took command of the forces—part army, part mob—in Cambridge, July 3, 1775. He was in great distress of mind because there was no powder to be had except the little that the men carried in their pouches and powder horns. But he made a brave show, and faced the enemy with courage, until the capture of a sloop gave him a supply of powder. During the following winter, cannon were dragged over the snow from Ticonderoga, so that at last Washington's little army had something better than fowling pieces and flintlock muskets to fight with. In March, 1776, Washington took up a position on Dorchester Heights, overlooking Boston. There he planted his cannon. This made it unsafe for the British to remain in Boston, where they were liable to be hemmed in and captured, so on March 17 they

* For biography, see Appendix.

moved out of the town, and soon afterwards went in their ships to Halifax, Nova Scotia.

An Attempt on the British in Canada.—In the summer of 1775, General Montgomery and General Schuyler, of New York, were sent with a small body of soldiers to attack the British in Canada. It was believed that the Canadians would take sides with the other Americans, but they did not. The Americans captured Montreal in November, and Washington sent troops under Benedict Arnold and Daniel Morgan to help in the campaign. They were joined by Montgomery at Quebec, and the united forces made a desperate attack on that strongly fortified town. They came near taking it, but were finally repulsed. Montgomery lost his life in the battle, Arnold was wounded, and Morgan was captured and held for a time a prisoner. A few months later the Americans were driven out of Canada, and the British were free to invade New York.

Declaration of Independence.—When the war broke out very few people in America thought of such a thing as the separation of the colonies from England. The colonists desired nothing more than to secure their rights as British subjects. The hope of obtaining them gradually faded away. The people grew angrier, and independence was more and more talked of. The people of Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, were the first to assert such views in a public way. Roused by the news of the Lexington and Concord fight, they met in May, 1775, and adopted resolutions declaring in favor of American independence.



Independence Hall, Philadelphia

By the spring of 1776, after a year of war with their king, the feelings of the patriots had changed. By advice of Congress the colonies adopted State governments for

themselves, and Virginia instructed her delegates to propose to Congress the adoption of a Declaration of Independence. Obeying this instruction, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, in June, 1776, offered a resolution "that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved."

Congress appointed a committee to draw up a formal Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson,* of Virginia, drew up the document, and it was presented to Congress on July 2. After some slight changes, the declaration was adopted by Congress on July 4, 1776. It was signed on that day by John Hancock, president of Congress, and a little later by the delegates of all the colonies.

Substance of the Declaration of Independence.—"We hold these truths to be self-evident," says the Declaration, "that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The Declaration gives a long account of the various acts of tyranny by which the colonists had been driven to rebellion, and adds: "We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do; in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States."

The Reception of the Declaration.—The Declaration was adopted in Philadelphia, where Congress was meeting. It was read there first, and the "liberty bell" rang out a joyful peal. When the news reached New York the people pulled down the leaden statue of George III. and molded it into bullets. Americans everywhere rejoiced.

* For biography, see Appendix.

Summary.—1. In Massachusetts a committee of safety was collecting arms and storing them for future use. General Gage sent British troops from Boston to Lexington and Concord to destroy these stores and arrest Samuel Adams and John Hancock. At daylight of April 19, 1775, these troops attacked a company of American minutemen at Lexington, and later at Concord, and then retreated toward Boston. This was the opening of the Revolution.

2. Early in May the Colonists captured Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

3. On June 17 the battle of Bunker Hill was fought. The Americans were defeated, but they proved that they could fight against regular troops.

4. During the summer of 1775 Montgomery and Schuyler marched to attack the British in Canada. They captured Montreal, but were repulsed at Quebec, and soon afterwards were driven out of Canada.

5. In May, 1775, the second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia and appointed George Washington commander in chief of the American forces. In March, 1776, he forced the British army to evacuate Boston.

6. After a year of fighting for their rights as British subjects it began to be clear to everybody that the Colonists should declare themselves independent.

7. Read carefully the substance of the Declaration as given in this chapter.

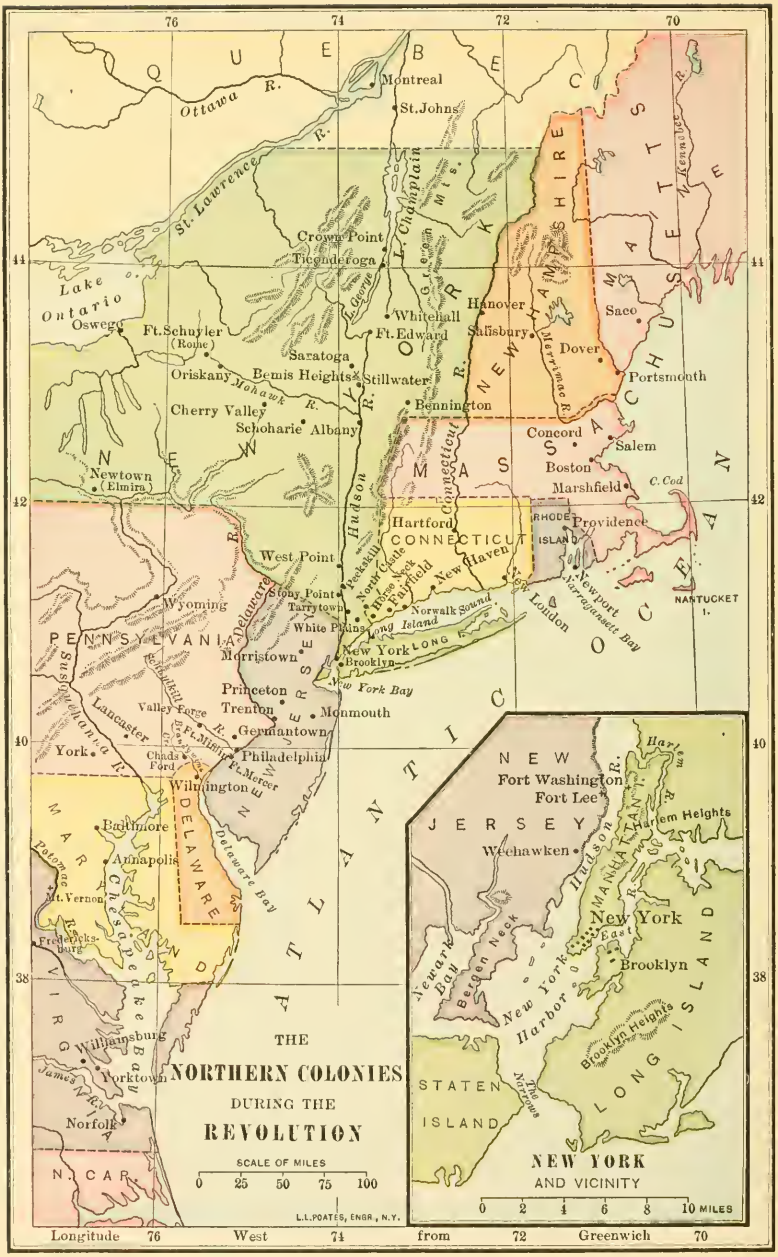
Collateral Reading.—Fiske's "The American Revolution," I., 120-126; Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 127-134.

CHAPTER XXV

THE REVOLUTION IN THE MIDDLE COLONIES AND AT SEA

The Battle of Long Island.—In April, 1776, Washington withdrew his army from Boston to New York. There he expected an attack by the British, who desired to get control of the Hudson River, and in that way to cut off New England from the other colonies.

Washington built two forts to defend the river—Fort Washington on the eastern bank, and Fort Lee on the western, nearly opposite. He also fortified Brooklyn Heights. Late in June General Howe, landed on Staten Island, in


THE
NORTHERN COLONIES
DURING THE
REVOLUTION
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NEW YORK
AND VICINITY
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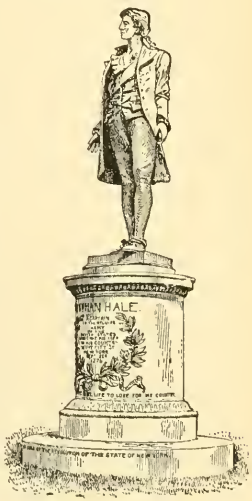
Montreal
St. Johns
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
Lake Ontario
Oswego
Ft. Schuyler (Rome)
Oriskany
Mohawk R.
Cherry Valley
Schoharie
Albany
Saratoga
Bemis Heights
Stillwater
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
L. Champlain
Green Mts.
L. George
Whitehall
Ft. Edward
Hanover
Salisbury
Dover
Saco
Portsmouth
Merrimac R.
Bennington
Concord
Salem
Boston
Marshfield
C. Cod
Providence
RHODE ISLAND
Newport
Narragansett Bay
NANTUCKET I.
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW YORK
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW HAMPSHIRE
Connecticut R.
Hudson R.
Newtown (Elmira)
Hartford
CONNECTICUT
New Haven
New London
Peekskill
North Castle
Horse Neck
Fairfield
Norwalk
Sound
Long Island
West Point
Stony Point
Tarrytown
White Plains
Wyoming
Delaware R.
PENNSYLVANIA
Morristown
New York
Brooklyn
LONG
New York Bay
Princeton
Trenton
Monmouth
Valley Forge
Germantown
Lancaster
Susquehanna R.
Schuylkill R.
Ft. Mifflin
Ft. Mercer
Philadelphia
York
Chads Ford
Wilmington
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
Delaware Bay
Baltimore
Annapolis
MARYLAND
Potomac R.
Mt. Vernon
Chesapeake Bay
Fredericksburg
VIRGINIA
Williamsburg
Yorktown
James R.
Norfolk
N. CAR.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NEW JERSEY
Fort Washington
Fort Lee
Harlem R.
Harlem Heights
Weehawken
Hudson R.
MANHATTAN
New York
East R.
Brooklyn
Newark Bay
Bergen Neck
New York Harbor
Brooklyn Heights
LONG ISLAND
STATEN ISLAND
The Narrows

New York Bay, with the British forces that had formerly held Boston. A few days later his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, arrived with reënforcements.

In August, General Howe crossed to Long Island with about twenty thousand men to capture Brooklyn Heights. General Putnam, with about forty-five hundred men, was sent to meet him. The Americans were soon driven back to their fortifications with great loss. This was called the battle of Long Island. It occurred on August 27, 1776. Two days later Washington quietly withdrew his little army by night from Brooklyn Heights to New York city in a dense fog. It was during these operations that the British captured the spy, Captain Nathan Hale, who had gone into their lines pretending to be a Tory schoolmaster. They hanged him on September 22. His last words were, "I regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."



Statue of Nathan Hale in New York

Washington Driven from New York.—Washington was soon forced to abandon New York and retreat up the Hudson to Peekskill. Howe pursued him, capturing Fort Washington and its garrison on his way. This was a severe blow. Washington was forced to divide his army. He left part of it under General Charles Lee at Peekskill to defend the Highlands of the Hudson. With the remainder he retreated step by step across New Jersey into Pennsylvania, pursued by the British under Cornwallis. Again and again Washington sent orders to Lee to join him with his force, but Lee, who was jealous of Washington, did not obey.

The Hessians.—Englishmen did not like to fight Americans, and the British government had to hire German soldiers in order to get enough men to carry on the war with the colonies. During the war about thirty thousand

of these hired soldiers came over to fight the Americans. At first, most of those who came were from Hesse-Cassel. So the name Hessians was applied to all the German troops hired by the English.

The Battle of Trenton.—Twelve hundred of these Hessians had been pushed in pursuit of Washington in his retreat across New Jersey. At Trenton they lay on the eastern bank of the Delaware, waiting for the river to freeze over. Washington was watching them from the

Washington crossing the Delaware

other side. He had seized or destroyed all the boats for a distance of seventy miles up and down the stream. Christmas was coming on, and Washington knew it would be a time of drunkenness among the Hessians. The weather was bitterly cold.

Washington marched silently up the Delaware on Christmas Day, put his poor, tattered, and partly barefoot soldiers across the stream in the night, and then marched down on the other side of the river facing a driving sleet storm. He had made up his mind to take Trenton by assault. When one of his generals sent him word that all his guns were too

wet to fire, Washington replied to the messenger, "Tell your general to use the bayonet, for the town must be taken." He waked the sleepy Hessians, and captured almost every man of them. He then returned to his position west of the Delaware.

The Battle of Princeton. — On the last day of the year Washington again crossed the Delaware and reoccupied Trenton. Cornwallis marched to attack the Americans. He promptly pushed back Washington's lines, and then waited for the morning to bag his game. But Washington, leaving some men to renew his camp fires during the night in order to deceive the British, marched silently round Cornwallis's flank and gained his rear. The first that Cornwallis knew of the escape of the Americans was in the morning when he heard Washington's cannon thundering at Princeton, far behind him, where he had left three regiments to hold the place. Having won a victory at Princeton, Washington withdrew to Morristown, a strong position among the hills, and there went into winter quarters.

This entire movement from the first crossing of the Delaware to the end of the campaign was one of the most brilliant of the Revolution. The British were forced to draw in their scattered detachments and mass them where they could be supported from New York, thus leaving Washington in control of nearly all New Jersey.

Burgoyne's March.—The British plans for 1777 included a grand stroke. This was nothing less than to cut the country in two. In order to do this General Burgoyne, in July, was sent south from Canada to seize Lake Champlain and the Hudson River, and thus cut off New England from the other colonies. General Schuyler, who was in command of the American troops in the north, did everything in his power to interfere with Burgoyne's progress. He felled trees into the creek which Burgoyne's boats must navigate, and across the road they must march upon. He involved Burgoyne in long and tedious delays

in crossing from Lake Champlain to the Hudson. This delay was of the utmost value to the Americans.

Schuyler was superseded because of his prejudice against the New Englanders, and General Horatio Gates was put in his place.

The Defeat of St. Leger.—While Burgoyne was marching south, another British commander, Lieutenant Colonel St. Leger, with a smaller force, including some Indians, was approaching the Hudson by way of the Mohawk Valley. He laid siege to Fort Schuyler, as it was later called, on July 3, 1777. It was his purpose to meet Burgoyne at Albany, to which point Burgoyne confidently expected to force his way. On the 6th of August, at Oriskany, a severe all-day battle was fought between part of St. Leger's forces and General Herkimer. The British and Indians were defeated, and on August 22 St. Leger's entire army became panic-stricken and abandoned the siege of the fort.

Bennington Monument

Battle of Bennington.—Burgoyne's supplies growing short in his long march, he sent one of his German generals to the neighborhood of Bennington, Vermont, to collect food and horses. Vermont was not yet a State in the Union, but was claimed by both New York and New Hampshire, while for its own part it claimed itself. The German general was assured that the parties of men in their shirt-sleeves whom he met were loyalists—that is to say, men in sympathy with the British cause—and would help him in what he had to do. But these men were, in fact, New Hampshire men under Gen-

eral John Stark, and a body of "Green Mountain Boys," who had rallied in defense of the country. They were allowed to encamp near the German general's force. After a time they attacked the Germans, August 16, 1777, and killed or captured nearly a thousand men. This is called the battle of Bennington.

The Defeat of Burgoyne.—This battle was the beginning of disasters for Burgoyne. The whole country was up in arms. The militia men, often barefoot, and sometimes in

Burgoyne's surrender

their shirt-sleeves, carrying fowling pieces, flocked to the American standard. These men were used to hunting, and knew how to shoot. They also knew the country round about in its every nook and corner. Burgoyne, on the other hand, did not know the woods, and had no scouts who knew them. Wherever he met the Americans a desperate battle followed. He found it impossible to force his way to Albany, and the road back was also closed to him. The Americans were, in fact, all around him, and the final struggle was desperate.

The finest fighting was done by Benedict Arnold. To him and to the great Virginia leader, General Daniel Morgan, the victories at Bemis Heights, on September 19 and on October 7, are generally accredited. Hopelessly beset, and unable either to advance or to retreat, Burgoyne at last, on the 17th, surrendered his fine army at a point near Saratoga. Thus ended in disaster the grandest campaign that the British had planned up to that time.

The British Occupy Philadelphia.—In the campaign of 1777 the British around New York should have devoted them-

Camp at Valley Forge

selves to the work of pushing northward and uniting with Burgoyne; but Howe, who commanded them, thought it would be a feather in his cap to take Philadelphia, the capital of the country. So, after making a feint on the mouth of the Delaware, Howe put to sea in July, much to the perplexity of Washington. The American commander soon heard that the British were sailing up Chesapeake Bay. He advanced, therefore, to Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine, and gave battle when the British arrived there on September 11. He was forced to retreat toward Philadelphia.

Again he went out to fight a battle, but a violent storm ruined the ammunition of both armies, and Washington retreated.

On the 19th of September the members of Congress were aroused from their beds and hastened away from Philadelphia to Lancaster. Later they went to York, Pennsylvania. In the meantime Howe entered Philadelphia on September 26. Washington's undismayed little army attacked him at Germantown on the 4th of October. It was again defeated. Washington then sought winter quarters at Valley Forge, twenty-four miles northwest of Philadelphia.

The Treaty of Alliance with France.—After Burgoyne's surrender, England tried to make peace with the Americans, offering any terms short of independence. But independence was what the Americans wanted and meant to get. Benjamin Franklin had been in France for a year trying to secure aid, but the French government would not commit itself. The victory of the Americans over Burgoyne, however, turned the scale, and a few months later, on February 6, 1778, France recognized the independence of the United States, and a treaty of alliance was made between the two powers. A French fleet was sent over to help the Americans.

Lafayette

Distinguished Foreigners in the Revolutionary Army. — The young Marquis de Lafayette * came to America in 1777 to serve as a volunteer in Washington's army. He brought with him Baron de Kalb, a veteran of the German army, and the two joined Washington near Philadelphia. Two Polish patriots, Count Pulaski

* For biography, see Appendix.

and Count Kosciusko, came in the same year. Baron Steuben, an able and experienced Prussian officer, joined the American army in 1778, and rendered great service in drilling the troops in European military tactics. De Kalb and Pulaski lost their lives in the war.

The Darkest Hour of the Revolution.—During the winter spent at Valley Forge, a little place on the Schuylkill River, Washington's army suffered the greatest distress and discouragement. The men depended upon the gifts of the charitable for clothing with which to keep themselves from freezing. The country people round about took their provisions into Philadelphia, where they could sell them to the English for gold. The Americans were ragged, barefoot, cold, and hungry.

The Conway Cabal.—At this time of discouragement a conspiracy was formed to remove Washington from command and put Gates in his place. This was called the Conway Cabal, from the name of one of the men engaged in it. Some members of Congress thought that Washington had partially failed as a commander, and the Cabal hoped to make an end of his career.

Evacuation of Philadelphia and the Battle of Monmouth.—The British government recalled Lord Howe because of his inactivity ,and put Sir Henry Clinton into his place . It was decided to evacuate Philadelphia, which could not be held against the French fleet. Washington learned of this, and sent Lafayette across the Schuylkill to intercept the first men who should move. A trap was set for Lafayette, but he managed to avoid it, and got back across the Schuylkill. The British left Philadelphia on the morning of the 18th of June, 1778.

Washington now put the vigilant "little boy," as Lafayette was sometimes called, in charge of the movements to pursue Sir Henry Clinton. General Charles Lee, as senior officer, claimed and took command of this force. The New Jersey militia were destroying bridges and filling up wells in front of the British to make their retreat more difficult

in the terrible heat of the weather. Washington hurried on and overtook the British rear at Monmouth, New Jersey. He ordered an attack, but Lee so managed that the Americans were thrown into disorder, and a retreat was begun. Washington met Lee with sharp and stormy words of rebuke, and Lee was soon afterwards dismissed from the army. He was a traitor, but the fact was not then known.

After rebuking Lee and sending him to the rear, Washington at once took command, rallied his forces, and renewed the attack. The battle lasted till night, the Americans having the best of it. The Americans slept on their arms that night, and about midnight Clinton withdrew. Before morning he was on ground too strong to be attacked. This battle occurred on June 28, 1778. It is known as the Battle of Monmouth.

Stony Point.—There were but few men engaged in the celebrated charge on Stony Point, on the Hudson River, not far above New York. Nor did it accomplish any great results. But for pluck and heroic dash it will live in song and story as long as brave deeds are remembered. General Wayne *—called "Mad Anthony" because of his reckless daring—led a force of Americans to within a mile and a half of the post on the evening of July 15, 1779. He killed all the dogs along his line of march to prevent them from giving the alarm by barking. A little after midnight, on the morning of the 16th, he assaulted the fort with tremendous vigor. With empty guns and fixed bayonets the Americans rushed over the works and compelled the British to surrender. Washington himself planned this surprise.

John Paul Jones.—John Paul Jones,* the greatest of Revolutionary naval officers, was born in Scotland. He came to America very young, and won distinction for daring at the beginning of the Revolution. He crossed the sea in the ship "Ranger," and got command of an ancient Indiaman, which he called the "Bon Homme Richard"—the French

* For biography, see Appendix.

Capture of the "Serapis"

translation of "poor Richard." "Poor Richard's Almanac" was Franklin's most popular book, and Franklin was Paul Jones's steadfast friend.

On September 23, 1779, the "Bon Homme Richard" engaged a British war ship called the "Serapis" off the northeast coast of England, and a fierce fight ensued. Jones sailed up to his adversary and fastened the two ships together. "Have you struck?" demanded the British captain when the fire slackened. "I haven't *begun* to fight yet," answered Jones. Both ships were shot nearly to pieces when Jones's men from the rigging dropped hand grenades —a kind of bombshell—through a hatchway of the "Serapis" into some powder, a powder chest exploded, killing many men, and the "Serapis" was obliged to surrender. Jones removed his crew from his own ship to the "Serapis," and the "Bon Homme Richard" went to the bottom the next day. Jones sailed in triumph in his enemy's ship into a Dutch port.

Benedict Arnold and His Treason.—Benedict Arnold was, as we have seen, one of the bravest officers on the American side. He was also, probably, one of the most dishonest.

His accounts were repeatedly looked into, with results that reflected no credit upon him. Once he was tried by court-martial and sentenced to be reprimanded. Smarting under this shame, he began to plan revenge.

West Point, in the Highlands of the Hudson, was the most important fortified place in the United States. It controlled the Hudson River. Arnold got himself appointed commander of this fort in order to betray it into the hands of the British, who were to reward him with a large sum of money and the position of a brigadier general in the British army. In September, 1780, Major John André (ahn-drā), aide-de-camp to Sir Henry Clinton, was sent from New York to arrange with Arnold for the surrender of the fort. On his way back to New York André was captured near Tarrytown by three armed Americans. They searched him, and found in his boots maps and plans of West Point, and a pass from Arnold through the American lines.

Trial of André

Hearing of André's capture, and knowing what it meant for him, Arnold made his escape to a British ship that lay in the river.

The brave young André was tried as a spy, condemned, and hanged.

Summary.—1. In April, 1776, Washington withdrew from Boston to New York and fortified the Hudson River He was soon forced to abandon New York and retreat up the Hudson and across New Jersey

into Pennsylvania, with the British army pursuing him as far as the Delaware River, where they encamped in December.

2. At Christmas Washington recrossed the Delaware during the night, and in the morning fell upon the Hessians at Trenton, and captured almost every man of them.

3. On the last day of the year Washington again crossed to Trenton, and, having crept around the British army in the night, attacked and defeated the British at Princeton on New Year's Day, 1777. He then withdrew to Morristown, in the hills. This forced the British to withdraw nearly to New York, and left Washington in control of New Jersey.

4. In July, 1777, a large British army under General Burgoyne was sent from Canada by way of Lake Champlain, while another force under St. Leger was sent down the Mohawk Valley. It was expected that these and a third force, ascending the Hudson from New York, would meet near Albany, and thus cut off New England from the rest of the colonies. St. Leger was defeated at Oriskany and forced to retreat.

5. In the meanwhile Burgoyne sent a force to collect supplies in Vermont. This force was defeated near Bennington, August 16.

6. Americans flocked rapidly to the army that was opposing Burgoyne, and presently the British commander found himself completely surrounded. After days of ceaseless fighting he surrendered his whole army near Saratoga in October.

7. Instead of marching to meet Burgoyne, Howe, in command at New York, set out to occupy Philadelphia. Washington fought him unsuccessfully at Brandywine Creek, and Howe occupied Philadelphia in September. Washington attacked him at Germantown, but was again defeated. The American army then went into winter quarters at Valley Forge.

8. The winter at Valley Forge (1777-1778) was the darkest time of the Revolution. It was at that time that a conspiracy was formed to set Washington aside.

9. Early in 1778 France recognized the independence of the United States, and a French fleet was sent over to help the Americans.

10. Fear of the French fleet caused the British to leave Philadelphia on the 18th of June, 1778. They retreated across New Jersey, Washington pursuing them. After a battle at Monmouth, in which Washington was the victor, the British retreated to a strong position and left Washington master of New Jersey.

11. In July, 1779, Gen. Anthony Wayne stormed and carried Stony Point on the Hudson.

12. John Paul Jones was the most brilliant naval officer of the Revolution. In September, 1779, in the ship the "Bon Homme Richard" he attacked and captured the British ship "Serapis."

13. In September, 1780, Benedict Arnold tried to betray West Point to the British, and, his plot being discovered, he deserted to the enemy.

Collateral Reading.—(Battle of Long Island) Roosevelt's "New York," 128-136; (Retreat through New Jersey) Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 171-181; (Trenton and Princeton) 183-194; (Brandywine) 205-208; (Germantown) 211-215; (Defeat of Burgoyne).

CHAPTER XXVI

EVENTS WEST OF THE APPALACHIANS

The Men at the West. —In order to understand what happened west of the mountains during the Revolution, we must go back a little and briefly tell of the settlement of that country.

Watauga.—About 1769 hardy emigrants began crossing the mountains, some of them to hunt and explore, and some to make homes for themselves in the richly fertile country which now constitutes Kentucky and Tennessee.

Among these were James Robertson and John Sevier, who are celebrated in history as great pioneer leaders and founders of States.

These two, with many others, settled about 1770, on the Watauga, in what is now Tennessee.

Their settlement was then a part of North Carolina, and not liking the rule of the royal governor of that colony, they set up a government for themselves, and for six years Watauga acted as an independent state.

The Hunters and Surveyors. —Other enterprising men, among whom Daniel Boone,* Isaac Shelby, and Simon Ken-

Daniel Boone

* For biography, see Appendix.

ton were notable, went into the wilderness on hunting and surveying expeditions that sometimes lasted for years.

These wanderers of the forest increased in numbers until the Indians became alarmed at their trespassing upon the hunting grounds and made war. The savages were badly beaten in a battle at Point Pleasant by an army of Virginians (1774), and during the peace that followed large

Battle of Point Pleasant

numbers of Virginians and Carolinians removed to the Western wilderness.

Transylvania.—The region between the Kentucky and Cumberland rivers rapidly grew in population, and for a time was called Transylvania. It set up a government for itself, and organized a little army under the lead of a young Virginian, George Rogers Clark,* who, in 1776, induced the Legislature of Virginia to convert the entire Transylvania country into the county of Kentucky, as a part of Virginia.

War with the Cherokees.—In 1776 British agents in the Carolinas stirred up the Cherokees of the mountain region

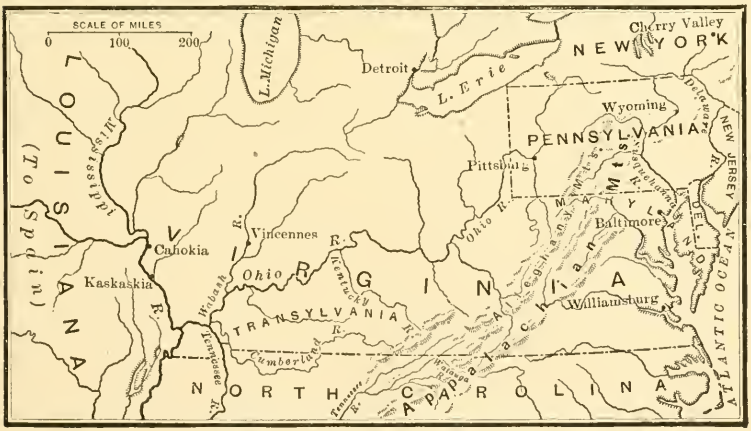
* For biography, see Appendix.

to make war upon settlers. The Watauga people successfully defended themselves, and later aided the people east of the mountains in a war that resulted in the breaking of the Cherokee power.

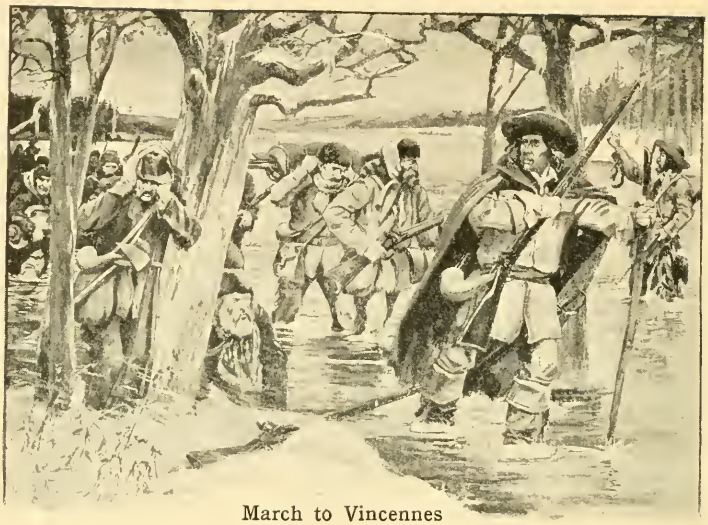
George Rogers Clark

George Rogers Clark's Expedition.—On the second day of January, 1778, Colonel George Rogers Clark was authorized by Governor Patrick Henry, of Virginia, to go on an expedition that nothing short of the daring and skill of an old-time frontiersman could have carried out.

The object of the expedition was to conquer the country north of the Ohio, which was held by the British, but occupied chiefly by warlike tribes of hostile Indians. That region was claimed by Virginia as a part of her grant from the king (see page 47). The only white settlements within it were a few old French villages, whose people had become British subjects at the close of the French and Indian War. These French traders had great influence with the Indians, and they used it in the service of the British garrisons stationed near them by helping to arm the savages, and by stirring them up to make war on the American frontier. Clark purposed to drive away the British garrisons, make



Western country in the Revolution



March to Vincennes

friends of the Frenchmen, and subdue or hold in check the Indians.

He set out in May down the Ohio with a flotilla of flatboats carrying his troops and some families of settlers. Several of the latter went with him as far as the falls of the Ohio, where Louisville now stands, and remained there. During the next month Clark set out for the mouth of the Tennessee.

Leaving his boats hidden near the mouth of the Tennessee, Clark marched to the old French post of Kaskaskia on the Mississippi. After many difficulties he got there on the 4th of July. He crept into the town in the night, took possession of it, and by admirable management he brought all the residents to take the oath of allegiance to the United States, without killing a man. Cahokia, a few miles farther up the river, also surrendered. The entire population of Vincennes, on the Wabash, took the oath of allegiance when they heard the news from Kaskaskia, and the American flag was raised over the fort there.

A few months later Hamilton, the British governor of the

Northwest, came down from Detroit and retook the Vincennes fort. He could easily have overpowered Clark at Kaskaskia, because he had a much larger force than Clark's, but he thought it safe to wait till spring, and was afraid to undertake the march to Kaskaskia in midwinter. His troops were largely militia men, and he sent most of them home, intending to recall them in the spring. Clark heard of all this from an escaped prisoner and determined to move at once against Vincennes. He marched two hundred and forty miles through difficulties that would have made the stoutest heart quail. During the last few days he had nothing for his men to eat. He was marching through water where the weak men and the short men had to be held up by the taller and stronger men. Reaching Vincennes at last, he demanded the surrender of the post, and after a battle succeeded in conquering it. The result of this bold and daring stroke was to give the United States a vast region west of the Appalachians, embracing the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

Sullivan's Expedition.—In July, 1778, the Indians made an attack on Wyoming, in Pennsylvaina, and carried away two hundred and twenty-seven scalps, with only five prisoners alive. It is a singular fact that no women or children were included in this massacre. On November 11 the Indians surprised Cherry Valley, New York. The alarm was given in time to close the gates of the fort. Many of those who remained outside were massacred by the savages, assisted by Tories—as those Americans who took sides with the English were called at that time.

Washington sent Sullivan with four thousand men to punish and break up the Six Nations, or that larger portion of them which held with the English. The expedition set out late in the summer of 1779. Houses, crops nearly ripe, and orchards were burned. Substantial villages of half-civilized Indians were laid waste. The Indians, rendered homeless, were forced to remove to Canada, where they were fed by the English.

Summary.—1. Emigrants had settled in what now constitutes Kentucky and Tennessee before the Revolution, and two colonies, Watauga and Transylvania, had maintained themselves as little states.

2. The Indians made war upon these settlements, but they successfully defended themselves, finally weakening the power of the Cherokees.

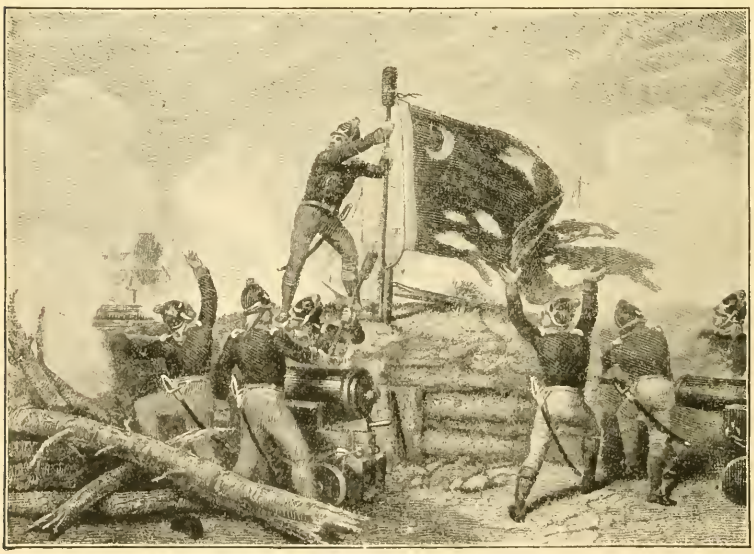
3. In 1778 one of the Transylvania leaders, George Rogers Clark, conquered from the British the whole region north of the Ohio River.

4. In the same year British, Tories, and Indians made incursions into Pennsylvania and western New York. Washington sent Sullivan to punish the Six Nations for this, and he did it so effectually, that the Indians were compelled to flee to Canada.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE REVOLUTION IN THE SOUTH

The Attack on Fort Moultrie.—The British had failed distinctly in New England, the rocky hillsides of which brought forth soldiers whenever they were wanted. They



Sergeant Jasper at Fort Moultrie

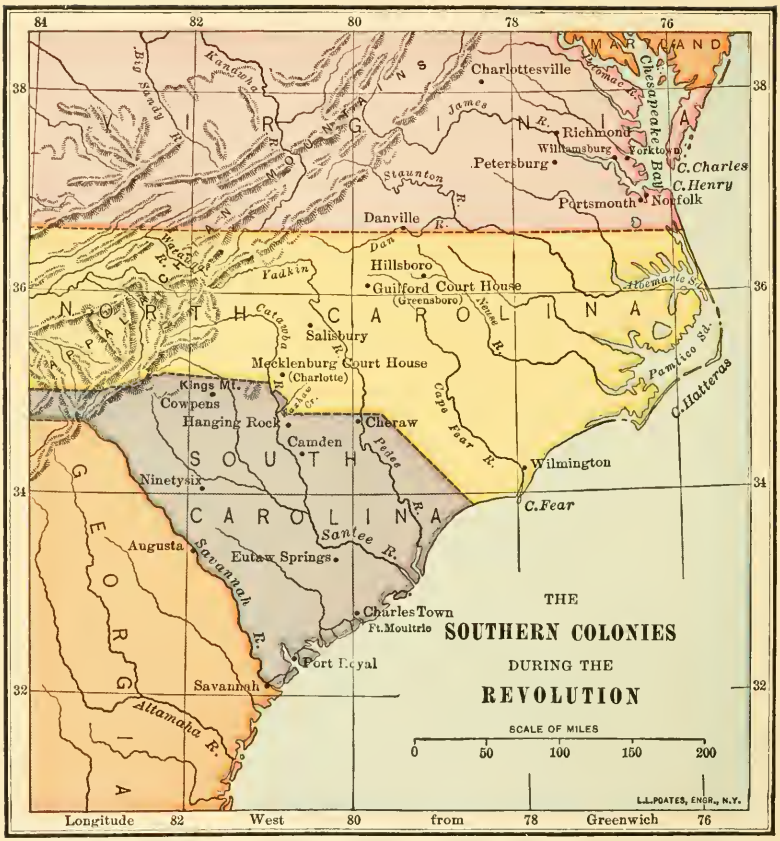
had next tried the Middle States, but they had been forced to evacuate every place there except New York. In 1778 they turned their attention to the South. They had already, in 1776, made one futile attempt at Charles Town, South Carolina.

There was a fort in Charles Town harbor built of palmetto logs and unfinished on its land side. General Moultrie had command of this fort, and an observer said at the time that the people "seemed to wish a trial of their mettle." On the 4th of June, 1776, an English fleet appeared off the harbor and landed its forces upon a neighboring island. On the 28th they attacked the fort. The men on the ships did not shoot accurately, while the men in the fort had been taught to fire slowly, and to hit what they shot at. The battle lasted for nearly ten hours. The British ships were badly damaged by the fire from the fort. One of them went aground and was left there. The battered fleet at last sailed away.

During the hottest of the firing, one of the American flags was shot away, and Sergeant Jasper, with desperate courage, and at great risk to himself, went out and hoisted it again. For this daring deed the governor of South Carolina gave Jasper his own sword, and the exploit has ever since been celebrated. Jasper lost his life in 1779, trying to repeat his bold deed during an attack on Savannah.

Savannah and Charles Town.—In the autumn of 1778 a British expedition took Savannah and overran Georgia. Early in the next year the force at Savannah moved against Charles Town in South Carolina, but was beaten and driven away by a small force under General Lincoln, aided by the militia which had been called out and organized by the very vigorous Governor of South Carolina, John Rutledge. Later in 1779 Sir Henry Clinton, with a large force brought from New York, assailed and captured Charles Town, after a severe struggle.

The Persecutions in Carolina.—Then began a persecution of the patriot people more disgraceful to the British than any-



thing that had gone before. All the people in Charles Town were put under arrest, but they were promised entire liberty if they would take no part in the war. In spite of this promise some of them were sent to prisons in Florida and elsewhere, and some of them were hanged. The British stirred up the Tories there to make a cruel war upon their neighbors, and Lieutenant Colonel Tarleton was sent out to harry the country.

The British hoped by this reign of terror to crush out all resistance at the South and then march northward for the conquest of the rest of the States.

The Battle of Camden.—In 1780, General Gates was sent by Washington to take command of the American forces in the South. He was vain of his victory over Burgoyne at Saratoga, and thought all things easy to him. But he was, in fact, unfit to conduct a difficult campaign, and when he met the British at Camden in August he was quickly routed, and his army dispersed. Gates himself fled on horseback more than two hundred miles across North Carolina, and would have committed suicide but for a generous letter which Washington sent to him.

The Battle of Kings Mountain.—After the defeat of the Americans at Camden, Cornwallis, who had succeeded Clinton, sent Lieutenant Colonel Tarleton and Colonel Ferguson to complete the conquest of the Carolinas and Georgia. Ferguson enlisted the Tories against their patriotic neighbors, and a fierce civil war devasted the region. Some North Carolina militia fled over the mountains before Ferguson, after a defeat. They told their neighbors in the Watauga and other settlements of Ferguson's cruelty, and their story was confirmed by a message

Battle of Kings Mountain

from Ferguson, who threatened to cross the mountains, overwhelm the backwoodsmen, hang their leaders, and lay waste their homes. This threat roused the people of the West to anger and grim determination. They laid their hands at once on their trusty and familiar rifles. When Ferguson heard of their advance he withdrew and took up a position on the crest of the stony ridge of Kings Mountain, near the South Carolina border. Here he thought himself safe.

The Western Army, led by William Campbell, with Isaac Shelby, John Sevier, and other brave pioneers to assist him, got within a quarter of a mile of the British before they were discovered.

Uttering an Indian war whoop the backwoodsmen began the assault. It was stoutly met by the British, and for a time first one side and then the other gave way, but the battle raged on. Ferguson led charge after charge, and at last, pierced by the bullets of several of his foes at the same moment, he fell dead from his horse at the head of his men. At the end of an hour the British were beaten and compelled to surrender. The number engaged on each side was about nine hundred men. The battle was fought on October 7, 1780.

Cornwallis, who was invading North Carolina, now felt obliged to fall back toward Charles Town, fearing an attack from the victorious backwoodsmen. But having defended themselves from the threatened invasion of the British, those sons of the forest withdrew to their homes beyond the mountains to protect their families and their property from the Indians.

The Campaign of General Greene in the South.—A few months after the defeat at Camden, General Gates was superseded by General Nathanael Greene,* of Rhode Island. Greene was one of the ablest American generals. Washington had great confidence in him. He took command of a new army which had been collected in the South, recruited

* For biography, see Appendix.

Battle of Cowpens

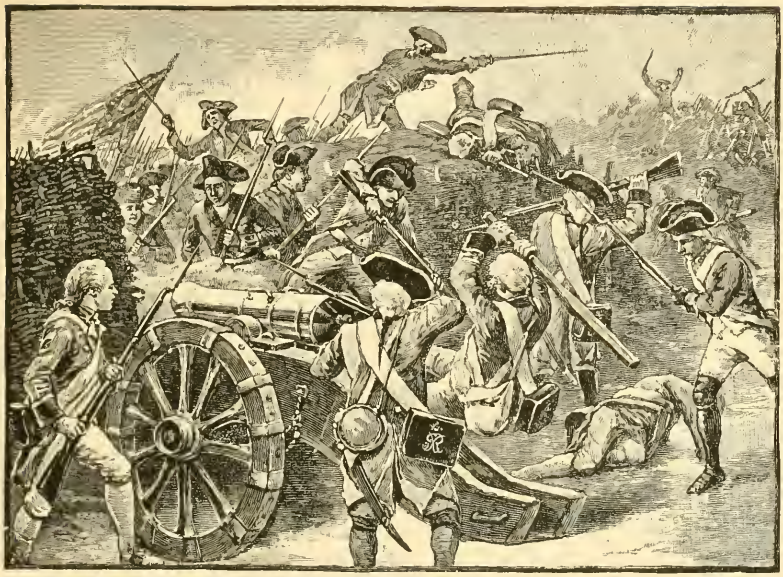
it rapidly, and improved it by strict discipline. Under Greene's wise direction the prospects of the Americans began to brighten. In January, 1781, he sent General Morgan, who had so greatly distinguished himself at Saratoga, with a small force on a recruiting expedition into South Carolina. Morgan was pursued by the British force under Colonel Tarleton. The two met on January 17 at a place called the Cowpens. A severe battle took place, and Morgan completely routed Tarleton, who lost a great part of his men.

Battle of Guilford Court House.—When Cornwallis heard of the defeat of Tarleton at the Cowpens, he set out to encounter and overwhelm Morgan. The latter succeeded in rejoining Greene, but the united forces were not strong enough to risk a battle, and Greene skillfully retreated for two hundred miles across North Carolina to the borders of Virginia, pursued by Cornwallis. There Cornwallis gave up the chase of an adversary who was too wily for him, and retired to Hillsboro, North Carolina. Greene, who had been

reënforced, then marched southward again, but managed to avoid a battle till he had gathered still more men. At last, on March 15, he encountered the British at Guilford Court House. After two hours of fighting, Greene found himself being slowly beaten. But he managed, by his skillful marchings, to exhaust his adversary also; and Cornwallis, almost ruined, abandoned his sick and wounded three days after the battle, and set out on a retreat across North Carolina, with Greene hard after him. It was one of Greene's peculiarities that though he never gained a victory, his defeat always had the effects of a success. After an exhausting march, Cornwallis reached Wilmington, North Carolina, where supplies sent from Charles Town were awaiting him.

Greene Reconquers Most of the South.—Greene instantly gave up the pursuit of Cornwallis, and turned back to drive the British out of South Carolina. Though often checked and sometimes defeated, he so far gained his object that in the Southern States only Savannah, Charles Town, and Wilmington, the three chief seaports, remained in British hands. The battle of Hobkirk's Hill, near Camden, in May, and the battle at Eutaw Springs in September, were the decisive engagements of the campaign. Though Greene was not distinctly successful at either place, the heavy loss he inflicted on his enemy gave the result the character of a victory.

Group of Lee's cavalrymen



Siege of Yorktown

Francis Marion.—Francis Marion, of South Carolina, was one of the most romantic of "partisan leaders," that is, patriots fighting on their own account, and always ready to engage in irregular battle for their country. He made himself a constant terror to the British. "Light Horse Harry Lee" and Generals Sumter and Pickens were also renowned fighters in this kind of warfare, and these irregular soldiers did much to redeem the South from the British.

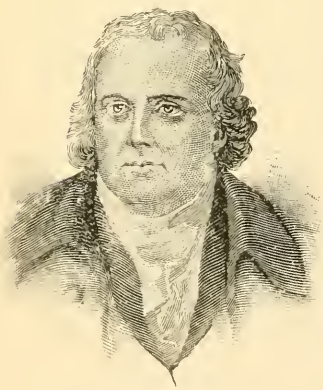
Arnold in Virginia.—In the meanwhile Benedict Arnold, the traitor, had been sent to Virginia, where he looted the plantations and ravaged the country. When Cornwallis, a little later, reached Virginia, he sent Arnold back to New York; and Arnold afterward made a malignant raid into Connecticut, burning and destroying.

The Last Battle.—Instead of following Greene from Wilmington into South Carolina, Cornwallis pushed northward into Virginia to join the British force that had been sent

there under Arnold. He took command of the united bodies, and after a good deal of fighting and skirmishing with Lafayette, who opposed him, Cornwallis, with his army increased to eight thousand men, went into winter quarters at Yorktown, where he fortified himself.

Washington quickly saw his opportunity. He marched as swiftly and secretly as he could across New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland into Virginia. He gave it out that his movement was a feint, and that his real purpose was to turn about and attack Clinton at New York. When Clinton at last realized that Washington's real destination was Yorktown, it was too late. The French fleet had appeared off Yorktown. Nine thousand American troops and seven thousand French, all under command of Washington, were to contest with less than eight thousand British under Cornwallis behind their breastworks. After nearly three weeks of siege and more or less active fighting, Cornwallis surrendered on October 19, 1781.

This ended the war. The final treaty of peace was signed in 1783. It had been negotiated by Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and John Adams on the side of the United States. Under this treaty the boundaries of the United States were to be Canada on the north, the Atlantic Ocean on the east, Florida on the south, and the Mississippi on the west. Great Britain at the same time ceded Florida back to Spain.



Robert Morris

Civilian Heroes of the Revolution. —Besides the men who fought for American independence there were others who rendered services equally great to the country's cause. Benjamin Franklin, in the darkest time, gave all his possessions to the country, and for long years served its interests conspicuously as its persuasive ambassador in Europe. Robert Morris,* at

* For biography, see Appendix.

great sacrifice to himself, provided money for the maintenance of the war which otherwise must have come to an end. Jefferson, Madison, the two Adamses, Otis, Pinckney, John Rutledge, Patrick Henry, and a score of others, rendered services to the cause quite as important as those rendered by the warriors.

Summary.—1. In 1776 a British fleet had assailed Charles Town, South Carolina, and had been driven off by the fire from a fort under General Moultrie.

2. Having failed in New England and the Middle States, the British again turned their attention to the South. They took Savannah in 1778, and Charles Town a year later. General Gates was sent south to command the American forces. He was routed at Camden in August, 1780.

3. Cornwallis sent Tarleton and Ferguson to finish the subjugation of the Carolinas and Georgia. Ferguson stirred up the Tories and made British soldiers of them, but was defeated at King's Mountain in October, 1780, by backwoodsmen under William Campbell.

4. A few months later General Greene was put in command at the South. He sent General Morgan into South Carolina, who defeated Tarleton at the Cowpens, January, 1781.

5. Greene's force not being strong enough to risk a battle, he skillfully retreated across North Carolina until Cornwallis gave up the pursuit. Greene then marched south, fought Cornwallis at Guilford Court House, and forced him to retreat to Wilmington. Greene immediately returned to South Carolina and drove the British out of the South, except from the seaports at Savannah, Charles Town, and Wilmington.

6. When Greene marched into South Carolina, Cornwallis pushed north into Virginia, and there, after a good deal of fighting, went into winter quarters at Yorktown. Washington quickly and secretly marched from New York to Virginia and besieged Cornwallis. He was joined before Yorktown by seven thousand Frenchmen. After a three weeks' siege, on October 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered, and the war was in effect at an end.

7. A final treaty of peace was signed in 1783. It recognized American independence, and under it the country extended from Canada to Florida, and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. At the same time England ceded Florida back again to Spain.

Collateral Reading.—(Greene and Cornwallis) Fiske's "The American Revolution," II., 244—290; (Yorktown) Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 297-307.

THE UNITED STATES
SHOWING ORIGINAL EXTENT
AND
CESSIONS OF WESTERN LANDS
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300
Hudson Bay
Lake of the Woods
Boundary undefined
CANADA
(TO GREAT BRITAIN)
Lake Superior
Quebec
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
Montreal
Boundary in dispute
Mackinac
L. Huron
Lake Michigan
THE TERRITORY OF THE OHIO RIVER
NORTHWEST
Mississippi R.
Established 1787.
Cessions by Massachusetts Connecticut, New York and Virginia
Compress land
L. Ontario
Niagara
Detroit
L. Erie
NEW YORK
MASSACHUSETTS
Portland
Boston
MAINE
NEW HAMPSHIRE
WEST RANGE 1791
CONNECTICUT
Hudson R.
New Haven
New York
Sandy Hook
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
PENNSYLVANIA
Pittsburg
Philadelphia
MARYLAND
Baltimore
Mount Vernon
VIRGINIA
Richmond
Norfolk
Ohio R.
COUNTY OF KENTUCKY (Part of Virginia) Admitted as State 1792
KENTUCKY
Missouri R.
St. Louis
(TO SPAIN)
LOUISIANA
TENNESSEE
Ceded by North Carolina 1790
Admitted as State 1796
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
Wilmington
Ceded by Georgia 1802
GEORGIA
Claimed by Spain until 1795
Charleston
Savannah
Natchez
Mobile
New Orleans
Pensacola
FLORIDA
(TO SPAIN)
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAHAMA IS.
(TO GR. BRIT.)
Longitude West from Greenwich
L.L.POATES, ENGR., N.Y.

FROM THE REVOLUTION THROUGH THE WAR OF 1812

CHAPTER XXVIII

GOVERNMENT UNDER THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION

The Adoption of State Constitutions.—When the Revolution began there were nearly three million people in the English colonies in America, and all were governed under charters, or letters of instruction of some kind, derived from the king. Having united in resistance to oppression, the colonies one after another set aside the authority of the royal governors, and adopted constitutions which set up governments of their own in a general way like those to which they had been accustomed. The chief difference was that the authority of the king was not recognized in these new governments. The governors who were chosen now by election had less power than the royal governors had exercised. So much were the new States afraid of executive power that in four of them, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire, the royal governor was replaced at first, not by an elected governor, but by a council.

The Articles of Confederation.—The Congress which adopted the Declaration of Independence was only a body of men representing thirteen separate but allied countries, for each State considered itself an independent nation. This Congress had great influence, but very little authority, and it soon became necessary to combine the States into one nation for purposes of war. Articles of Confederation were adopted by Congress in 1777, but were not accepted by all the States until 1781.

These Articles gave Congress power to declare war, make peace, coin money, and settle disputes between States, but no power to raise a dollar by taxation or to enforce any law. Much of the weakness and suffering of the army during the latter part of the Revolution was due to the inability of Congress to make each State pay its part in the expenses of the war.

Under this plan Congress consisted of a single body or House in which each State was represented by from two to seven delegates, but each State, whatever its population might be, was permitted to cast only one vote. No important measure could be carried without the votes of nine States. No change could be made in the Articles of Confederation without the consent of all the States. This plan of government was wretchedly weak, and it quickly fell into contempt at home and abroad.

The Western Lands.—The delay in adopting the Articles of Confederation by the several States was due to the stand taken by Maryland and other States whose western boundaries were fixed. These States insisted that all the unoccupied lands between the Alleghany or Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi should be given up by the States claiming them and become the property of the general government, to be sold for the benefit of the whole Union. On the other hand, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia claimed these lands under early charters, which had set their boundaries as from "sea to sea," and New York also claimed part of them under a treaty with Indians. New York and Virginia were the largest claimants. After all the other States had signed the Articles of Confederation Maryland held out on this point until, in 1780, New York gave up her Western lands, and in the next year Virginia agreed to do the same. The other States followed the example of these two, and thus the great Northwest became a public domain.

Weakness of the Confederation.—But until the public lands should come into demand the national authorities had no

means of raising money with which to pay its debts or to carry on government. For under the Articles of Confederation Congress had no power to collect taxes or to get money in any way except by asking the States for it, and the States were not bound to furnish it when asked. The national debt amounted to forty-two million dollars.

In these circumstances an effort was made so to amend the Articles of Confederation as to allow Congress to lay a tax or duty of five per cent on the value of all goods imported into this country from abroad. Twelve of the thirteen States voted for this, but New York refused, and as no such amendment was valid until all the States assented to it, the plan fell through. At this time Congress itself was in danger of totally disappearing. Some of the States did not take the trouble to elect members, and sometimes there were not enough States represented to carry any measure.

In brief, the Confederation was plainly about to go to pieces. There was nobody to fight the Indians or to make treaties with them. There was no money with which to deal with the Barbary pirates, who were making slaves of Americans. The few soldiers there were in the service of the country were left without pay, and they quickly revolted. In 1783 a company of these mutineers marched to the hall in Philadelphia where Congress met, and threatened if they were not paid to break into the bank which held the little money that the government had. The local authorities refused to deal with these men, and so Congress was compelled to flee across the river into New Jersey.

Still worse, there arose many quarrels between the States which Congress could not settle. New York taxed every little Jersey boat that brought wood and food into the city. New Jersey insisted that New York should pay eighteen hundred dollars a year for the privilege of keeping a lighthouse on Sandy Hook. Troubles sprang up everywhere.

Shays's Rebellion.—In all the States money was scarce and the people were in debt. A rebellion, caused by these conditions, broke out in western Massachusetts in 1786. Daniel

Shays's rebels attack the Springfield arsenal

Shays, a Revolutionary officer, placed himself at the head of a company of rebels who tried to prevent the courts from hearing suits for the collection of debts. For a time this rebellion threatened serious results, but after a while General Lincoln succeeded in putting it down. This rebellion, as we shall presently see, helped to the adoption of a better government under the Constitution.

The Ordinance of 1787.—One of the last acts of the Congress of the Confederation was to pass the famous ordinance of 1787, providing for the government of the Northwest Territory. This ordinance provided that the property of a man who died there without a will should be divided equally among his children instead of going all of it, or a double portion of it, to the eldest son, as it generally did under colonial laws. It gave freedom of worship to all, provided for the establishment of schools, and forever forbade slavery in that region. It also provided that the territory, when it should become populous enough, should be divided into States, which should be admitted to the Union on equal terms with the original thirteen. On this plan the five great States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin have come into the Union, and new States have been formed on the same plan out of territories that have since been added to the national domain.

The Annapolis Convention.—It was rapidly becoming plain to men of sense that the government could not go on as it was. Either the Union must be broken up into a number

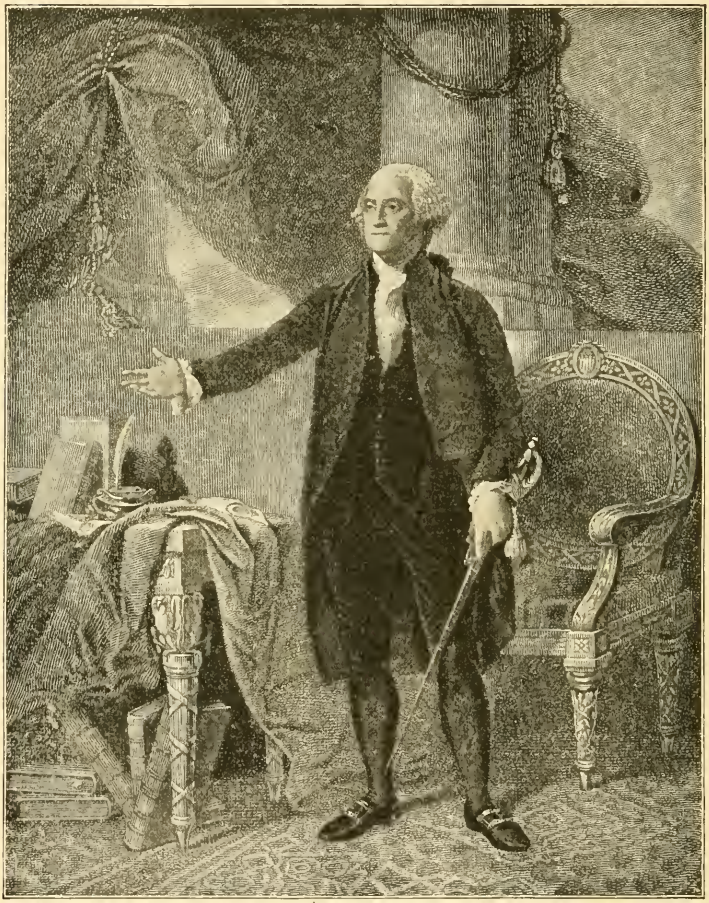
of little republics constantly quarreling with one another, or the States must create for themselves a national government strong enough to attend to its duties.

But the States were very jealous of each other and very much afraid that a national government strong enough to stand alone would deprive them of their rights.

In 1785 commissioners from Maryland and Virginia met to agree upon rules for carrying on commerce in Chesapeake Bay. Madison, who was one of the delegates, persuaded his fellows to adjourn until the next year and to invite delegates from the other States to meet with them then. When they met again, at Annapolis, Maryland, only five of the thirteen States were represented, but Hamilton got the convention to adopt a formal request to all the States to unite in a convention to be held in Philadelphia on May 14, 1787, for the express purpose of considering the question of national government.

The Constitutional Convention.—The great leaders in all the States were members in this convention. Washington was its president, and Benjamin Franklin, tottering now with age, was one of its greatest minds. The session lasted for four months. The questions raised were difficult and the debates stormy. Several times it seemed impossible to come to an agreement, and several times the convention was in danger of breaking up without doing anything. But the wise men gathered there were strongly convinced of the necessity of coming to an agreement, and they succeeded at last in framing a Constitution.

One trouble in agreeing was that the smaller States were afraid that the larger ones would outvote them in a Congress based upon population, and that they would thus lose their rights. This difficulty was met by making Congress consist of two Houses, in one of which, the Senate, each State should have two members and no more, thus making all the States equal in power without regard to the difference in their population. The lower House was to consist of representatives elected by the people in proportion to popu-



George Washington

lation in the several States. No law could be made by Congress until it had passed both Houses. This gave to the smaller States an equal chance in the Senate with the greater States to prevent the passage of acts to which they objected.

The second compromise related to slavery. The question to be settled was whether those States which had many

slaves should be represented according to the total number of their population, or only according to the number of free persons living within their borders. This was settled at last by an agreement that five slaves should count as three people for purposes of representation in Congress.

The third compromise was an agreement that Congress should not forbid ship masters to bring slaves from other countries into this until the year 1808.

The Adoption of the Constitution.—When at last the Constitution was framed, Congress submitted it to the several States for their approval. It could have no effect until nine of the States should have ratified it. There was strong opposition to it in all the States. Two political parties were formed—the Federalists, who favored the Constitution, and the Anti-federalists, who were opposed to it. For a time the consent of nine States seemed very doubtful. It was then that Alexander Hamilton,* James Madison,* and John Jay rendered a great service to their country. Hamilton established a periodical called the "Federalist," which was written by himself, Madison, and Jay. In this periodical these three set forth with extraordinary force and clearness the arguments in behalf of the Constitution. They proved its necessity. With skillful persuasion they taught the people to realize the melancholy fate which awaited their native land if things were suffered to go on as they were. They allayed the fears of the people and induced them to put aside their jealousy. Delaware, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey were the first States to adopt the Constitution. Georgia followed in the next year, and the other States one by one consented. At last, in 1788, New Hampshire, the ninth State, ratified the Constitution, and this Union of ours was born.

So great was the rejoicing, that Hamilton, Madison, and Jay became the heroes of the hour. They were called the fathers of the Constitution, and a mimic ship bearing Hamilton's name was borne through the streets of New York

* For biography, see Appendix.

in the celebration which followed. Rhode Island was the last to come into the Union, which she did in 1790.

Provisions of the Constitution.—The Constitution framed at that time, with fifteen amendments which have since been added, is the one we still live under. Under the old Confederation there was no President. The execution of the laws was left to a committee of Congress. The new Constitution changed all this. It separated the government into three equal and independent branches, as follows:

1. The Legislative Branch, which is called in the Constitution "the Congress." It consists of a House of Representatives, chosen by the people in proportion to the population of the several States, and a Senate consisting of two members from each State. In order to become a law every measure must be voted for by a majority of the House of Representatives and also by a majority of the Senate. It must then be submitted to the President, who approves or disapproves it. If he approves it, it becomes a law. If he disapproves it, it does not become a law unless each House in Congress passes it again by a two-thirds vote in spite of the President's veto or disapproval.

2. The Executive Branch, consisting of the President and public officers appointed under him. The President is elected for four years. He is commander in chief of the army and navy. He appoints all the chief executive officers, but his appointments must be consented to by the Senate before they take effect. If the President dies or becomes disabled during his term the Vice President takes his place. The Constitution left it to Congress to decide who should act as President if both the President and Vice President should die or become disabled during their term. The law now in force provides that a certain member of the cabinet should succeed temporarily to the Presidency in such a case.

3. The Judicial Branch, consisting of the Supreme Court of the United States and such lower courts as Congress may establish. The President appoints all Judges of

the United States Courts. The Supreme Court now consists of a Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices, but Congress may change the number at will.

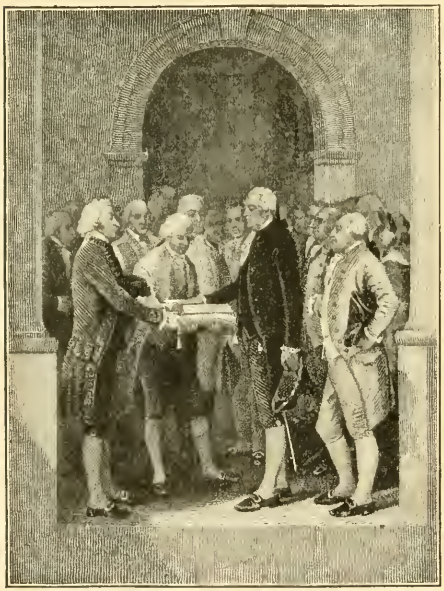
How Presidents are Chosen.—The President and Vice President are not elected directly by the people, but by electors chosen for that purpose. Each elector has one vote, and each State has as many electors as it has Senators and Representatives in Congress. The electors are chosen by the people, though the State legislatures may choose them without a vote of the people if they see fit. The electors for each State meet at the State capital on an appointed day and vote for a President and a Vice President.

At a time appointed the two Houses of Congress meet together, and the President of the Senate opens the certificates from all the States, showing how the electors have voted. If a majority of the electors have agreed upon one man for President he is declared elected, and it is the same with the Vice President. But if the electoral votes are so divided among several candidates that no one of them has a majority of all the votes, there is no election. In that case the House of Representatives must choose a President from the three persons having the highest number of electoral votes. But in such an election the House of Representatives votes by States; that is to say, each State has but one vote whether the number of its representatives be many or few and a majority of all the States is necessary to elect. If no Vice President is elected by the electors, the Senate chooses one.

At first each elector voted for two persons for President, and the one having the highest number of votes, if that number was more than half the number of electors, was elected President, while the one having the next highest number was to be Vice President. This system resulted in difficulties, as we shall see in a later chapter, and the present method was adopted in its stead. The President must be a person born in the United States, and not less than thirty-five years old.

As a matter of fact, the electors do not vote freely, each for himself. They are nominated and elected in each State to vote for the particular candidate of their party, and they do so. Thus when the popular vote in the several States is known the result of the election is decided.

Washington's Inauguration.—The first electors cast their votes in February, 1789. Congress was to have met in New York on March 4 to count the electoral votes, but because traveling was slow there was not a quorum present until the 1st of April. The count was made on the 6th, and it was found that Washington was unanimously chosen to be President. John Adams having the next highest number of votes, became Vice President. Washington at once set out from Mount Vernon for New York, which was then the capital. His journey was a triumphal march. Crowned with a laurel wreath and riding a white horse, he was escorted by troops through Philadelphia. At Trenton, New Jersey, he was driven across a bridge under an arch covered with flowers and evergreens. Young girls dressed in white strewed flowers in his pathway and sang songs in his praise. He reached New York in a barge and was received with every mark of joy on the part of the people. On the 30th of April he was inaugurated in great pomp at Federal Hall, on the corner of Wall and Nassau Streets, where his statue now stands.



Washington taking the oath as President

Summary.—1. The thirteen independent States plan a Confederation.

2. The Western lands cause delay in the adoption of Articles of Confederation.

3. The ordinance providing for government of the Northwest Territory was passed in 1787.

4. The Confederation proving to be so weak and loosely formed that good government was impossible, attempts were made to form a stronger Union.

5. The Constitutional Convention frames a Constitution which is finally adopted.

6. Washington was elected first President, and was inaugurated with John Adams for Vice President on April 30, 1789, in New York city.

Collateral Reading.—Schouler's "History of the United States," I., 19, 22, 31, 34; Walker's "The Making of the Nation," 2-6, 9-20; Schouler's "History of the United States," I., 29-31, 36-47; Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 327-332.

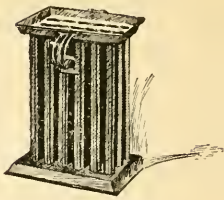
CHAPTER XXIX

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION

Life in Washington's Time.—When Washington became President there was no such thing known in the world as a steamboat, a railroad, a telegraph, or a telephone. Gas and electric light were both unknown. Even kerosene oil was not discovered until many years later. The well-to-do used sperm oil in lamps, and sometimes burned spermacetti candles. Most houses were lighted with tallow candles or with bayberry tallow candles, which gave off a perfume. Still more frequently light was got by putting a little fat into a saucer with a wick in it which was held up by a piece of cork. Sometimes iron lamps were hung from the wall. Houses were warmed with wood burning in fireplaces. There

Wall lamp

Sperm-oil lamp



Candle mold

were a few stoves, used mostly by the Germans in Pennsylvania.

The First Tariff.—The first need of the new government was that of money. The question of how to raise the money needed began at once to be discussed. It was decided after a little while to levy duties, or taxes, on articles imported into this country. Such duties are commonly called a tariff. Tariffs are of two kinds—revenue tariffs and protective tariffs. A revenue tariff is one which puts a small tax on imported goods, so that such goods may freely come into the country, and so that the government may get revenue from the taxes. A protective tariff is one which charges so high a duty as to keep out foreign goods or products in some degree, and make them so high in price that the people who make, or grow, or mine similar things within the country may charge more for them than they otherwise could. In other words, a protective tariff is meant to protect the manufacturers, miners, farmers, stock raisers, etc., of a country against severe competition with similar producers abroad. The first tariff made in this country was in part levied for revenue, but in part it was protective.

Wall lamp

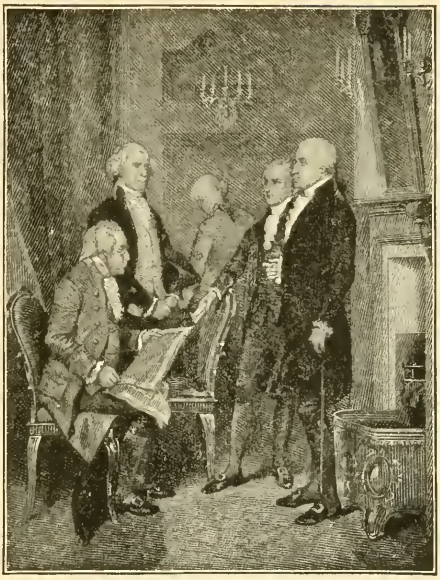
Tin lantern

Executive Departments.—The Constitution left many details of government to be arranged by Congress. After discussion, Congress decided to create three executive departments, each with a secretary at its head. These departments were a Department of Foreign Affairs (now called the Department of State), a Department of War, and a Treasury Department. As the needs of the government have grown, other departments have been added. Their heads are called cabinet officers.

Wall candlestick

The National Capital.—At its first session Congress

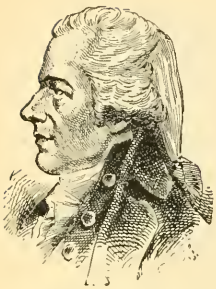
decided to make Philadelphia the capital of the country for ten years. After that the capital was to be located on the Potomac River, and Washington was asked to choose the site. In order that the capital city might not be under the control of any State a tract of land ten miles square was given by Virginia and Maryland, and called the District of Columbia. The part given by Virginia was afterward ceded back to that State. The District of Columbia is governed wholly by Congress. Its people have no representative in that body, and no part in the choice of Presidents.



The first cabinet

Political Parties.—After the Constitution was adopted those who were called the Federal party desired to secure and increase the power of the central government. The opposing party did all it could to keep power in the hands of the several States. Under Washington and Adams the Federalists held the reins. That party included most of the rich and influential people, and those who loved stately ceremony. Washington was a Federalist in his opinions and tastes, but as President he strove to avoid taking sides.

Alexander Hamilton.—The greatest of the Federal leaders was Alexander Hamilton, who had done much to induce the States to adopt the Constitution. Hamilton could not believe that the great mass of the people were fit to take part in the government. He believed in govern-



Alexander Hamilton

ment by the select few, and he wished the Federal government to be made as strong as possible in its control of affairs in all the States.

Hamilton's Measures.—As first Secretary of the Treasury Hamilton insisted that Congress should provide for the ultimate payment of the national debt in full, and no sooner were measures intended to accomplish that adopted by Congress than he proposed that the national government should take upon itself all the debts of the several States which had been incurred in carrying on the Revolution. There was strong opposition to this, but Hamilton carried through Congress a measure to that effect.

Excise Taxes.—The tariff duties did not yield enough money to meet expenses and pay the debt, but it was thought unwise to increase them. So Hamilton advised Congress to levy an excise tax on distilled liquors made in the United States. After much opposition this was done.

A National Bank.—In the same year, after a long and bitter debate, Hamilton carried through Congress a measure creating a national bank. This bank and the mint, established in the following year (1792), furnished a uniform currency for use in all the States. Under advice of Thomas Jefferson the decimal system was adopted for our money.

New Mint, Philadelphia

The First Republican Party.—All these measures of Hamilton tended to increase the power of the central government. Many statesmen thought that the Federalists were going too far in that direction, and even that their

measures were contrary to the Constitution. A new political party was therefore formed under the lead of Thomas Jefferson, who was Secretary of State. With him stood Madison, Randolph, and other prominent leaders. They called themselves Republicans because they wished to hold the government to republican forms and principles.

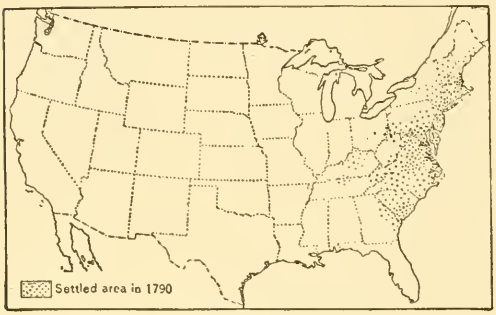
By the year 1793 this new party was fully organized. The Republicans sympathized with the revolutionists in France, and therefore the Federalists in contempt nicknamed them "Democrats." A little later the party itself adopted the name "Democratic-Republican," and finally dropped the word Republican entirely from its party name. This early Republican party must not be confounded with the Republican party of our time.

The Whisky Rebellion.—The people in western Pennsylvania were largely engaged in making whisky, which could be shipped to market more economically than the bulky grain. They naturally objected to the excise tax levied to provide money for the government needs, and in 1794 efforts to collect that tax led to an armed rebellion among them. This was the first time that the new government had been called upon to exercise its powers in putting down a revolt, and there was serious fear that an attempt on its part to do so would lead to grave trouble. But Washington was firm, and under his orders "Light Horse Harry Lee," at the time governor of Virginia, was sent to Pittsburg with a militia force to compel obedience to the law. The insurrection was quieted without a battle.

The First Census.—The first census of the United States was made in 1790. It showed a total population of 3,929,000 in the thirteen States. Several States in our time have each a larger population than this. New York has more than twice as many people as there were in the whole country then, and the population of New York city alone is now about as great as that of the whole country in 1790.

Philadelphia was the largest city then. It had forty-two thousand people. New York had only thirty-three thou-

sand and Boston eighteen thousand. There were no towns of any considerable size in the interior, except Lancaster, Pennsylvania. The country then included only the region east of the Mississippi and north of Florida. The great bulk of the population dwelt east of the Appalachians and north of the Savannah River. Georgia was sparsely populated. Western New York and Pennsylvania were beginning to be peopled by emigrants from farther east, while the regions now constituting Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, West Virginia, Indiana, and Illinois were still only beginning to be settled, the great tide of immigration which was presently to create populous States there having only just begun its flow.



Settled area in 1790

About one seventh of the population of the country consisted of negro slaves. Of the Northern States, New York had the most slaves, about twenty thousand in number. But most of the negroes were in Maryland, Virginia, and the two Carolinas.

Summary.—1. In order to raise money for the expenses of the new government Congress passed a tariff bill.

2. Three cabinet officers were at first provided for by law, and others have been added since.

3. Philadelphia was the national capital for ten years. Congress had decided to set up a capital city on the banks of the Potomac after that time. Virginia and Maryland gave the government a tract of land ten miles square for that purpose. This was called the District of Columbia. It is governed exclusively by Congress. That part of it which Virginia gave was afterward given back.

4. Early in Washington's administration the people were divided into two political parties. One of these, led by Hamilton, tried to

strengthen the power of the central government, and under Hamilton's influence Congress passed important measures in that direction. The people who wished to keep the central government under a strict rein and to cultivate simple manners formed themselves into the Republican party under Thomas Jefferson's lead.

5. The first census (1790) showed a population of 3,929,214.

Collateral Reading.—Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 338, 340, 342-344; Schouler's "History of the United States," I., 223-234; II., 93, 97; Walker's "The Making of the Nation," 66-72, 99-103.

CHAPTER XXX.

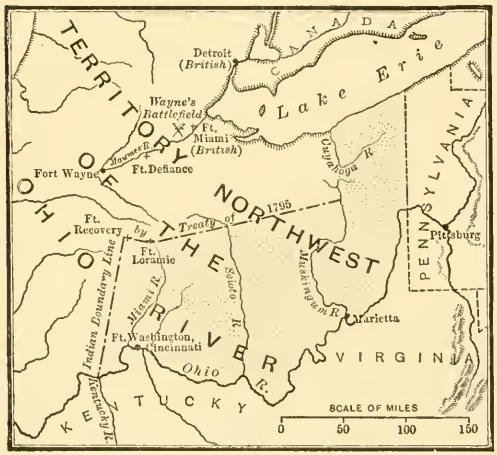
WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION—*Continued*

Beyond the Alleghanies.—After the States had ceded their northwestern lands to the government two land companies were formed to settle the region under a law of Congress which set apart all lands there for sale at very low prices, the money to be used in the payment of the public debt. But if settlers were to go into that territory, the Indians there, who numbered about thirty thousand, and who remained hostile in spite of many treaties that had been made with them for the sale of their lands, must be conquered. These fierce savages claimed all the region north of the Ohio, and made ceaseless war upon the whites. They refused to regard the treaties by which Congress had bought their lands as binding upon them, saying that those who had sold their lands had no right to sell them.

The treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States required the British to surrender their military posts at Niagara, Detroit, and Mackinac, but they found an excuse for not doing this. The several States of the Union had made laws confiscating the property of Tories and forbidding the collection of money due to them. In the treaty the general government had agreed to get these State laws repealed, and it had asked the States to fulfill the promise. The States had refused, and Great Britain continued to hold

its Western forts and to stir up the hostility of the Indians, supplying them with arms, food, and clothing.

Settlements North of the Ohio.—The first settlement made under the public land laws in what is now Ohio was made in 1788 by a Massachusetts colony, and named Marietta. In the same year a settlement was made where Cincinnati now stands.



Indian wars in the Northwest

Harmar's and St. Clair's Defeats.—The Indians were determined to drive these settlers away. For protection against them Fort Washington was built at Cincinnati, and three hundred soldiers were sent to hold it. As the Indians continued to attack the settlers, General Harmar was ordered in 1791 to attack the Miami tribe, whose chief village was where Fort Wayne, Indiana, now stands. The Indians burned their village and fled. Harmar followed, but the Indians ambushed his men and forced him to retreat to his fort. General St. Clair, a Revolutionary officer, who was governor of the territory north of the Ohio, was sent in 1791 with a regiment to build forts, make roads and bridges, and hold the country, but the Indians surprised and routed him.

Finally, in 1792, General Anthony Wayne, whom the Indians called "the chief that never sleeps," was sent into the Indian country. He spent two years in building forts, enlisting troops, and trying to make peace with the savages. The British had built a fort on American soil on the Maumee River, and were supplying the Indians with food, ammuni-

tion, and military advice. When Wayne advanced against the Indians they fled to the neighborhood of this fort. Wayne attacked them (August 20, 1794) in a woodland full of fallen timber. After a desperate fight he beat them so completely that this "Battle of the Fallen Timber," as it was called, made an end of the war. In the next year Wayne made a treaty by which the tribes gave up all their claims to most of what is now Ohio.

The French Republic Asks Aid.—A revolution broke out in France in 1789. A republic was established there, and in 1799 war was declared between France and England. The French hoped for aid from this country in return for what France had done for us during the Revolution, and France sent over as her minister a man named Genet (zhen-a).

The Republicans here sympathized with the French, and would gladly have furnished privateers for use against Great Britain; but the Federalists, who were in power, wanted to keep peace with Great Britain, and before Genet arrived Washington issued a proclamation declaring that this coun-

Battle of the Fallen Timber

try was friendly to both the French and the British, and would not permit her citizens to aid or injure either of them.

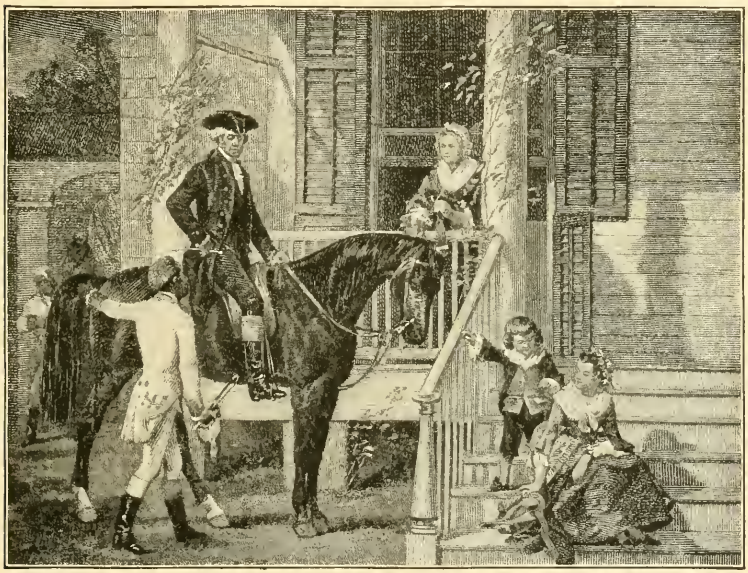
England Interferes with American Commerce.—The treaty which had been made between this country and England provided simply for peace. It did not establish friendly relations between the two nations, and Great Britain refused to let American ships trade with the British West Indies. When war came between France and England French ships were not safe on the seas. France, therefore, threw open to American ships all the ports in the French West Indies which had before been closed to our trade. This gave the Americans a profitable commerce, but it also helped France. So England interfered. British war ships were ordered to search all American ships going to or from France. If their cargoes turned out to be provisions belonging to American owners, they were either seized and paid for, or sent to some port in a neutral country. This interference excited great anger in the United States.

Impressing American Seamen.—This was not all, however. In order to get sailors for her war vessels England ordered her ships to search American vessels on the high seas, and take from them every sailor who had been born an Englishman. As the British officers who made these seizures were sole judges as to whether a sailor was or was not a British subject, and as they badly needed men for their ships, they seized in fact many thousands of native Americans and made them serve in the

Impressing an American seaman

British navy. This angered Americans so greatly that a new war with England at one time seemed certain.

The Jay Treaty.—To avoid war Washington sent John Jay, Chief Justice of the United States, to England to make a treaty settling all matters in dispute. Jay succeeded in making a treaty by which Great Britain gave up the military posts she held in our territory, and allowed American ships



Washington at Mount Vernon

to trade in the West Indies. But she would not agree to stop seizing our sailors for her navy. In other clauses of the treaty each nation gave up something to the other, but on the whole the Americans thought that England had got the better of us in the bargaining.

The Treaty with Spain.—Owning the mouth of the Mississippi, Spain claimed the exclusive right to navigate that river. This cut off our Western settlements from the only route by which they could send their produce to market.

In 1795 Spain, however, made a treaty with us, which opened the river to Americans.

Retirement of Washington.—As his second term in the presidency neared its end, Washington issued a farewell address to his countrymen, and he refused to hold office longer. As soon as Adams, his successor, was inaugurated, Washington set out for his home at Mount Vernon, and on the journey was everywhere received with honors. He was the most illustrious of the many great men of the eighteenth century. He died on the 14th of December, 1799.

New States.—During Washington's administration three new States were admitted to the Union—Vermont, March 4, 1791; Kentucky, June 1, 1792; and Tennessee, June 1, 1796. These were the first States added to the original thirteen. Two of them lay west of the mountains, and their admission to the Union was the beginning of that wonder-story of national growth which, in a little more than a hundred years, has converted a region half as great as all Europe from a wilderness of woodland and prairie into populous and highly civilized States.

Summary.—1. After the States had ceded to the government their claims to the Northwest Territory, many settlers removed from the older parts of the country into that region. The Indians north of the Ohio River were hostile, and for a year or two defeated every force sent against them; but at last General Anthony Wayne conquered them and secured a treaty (1795) by which they gave up their claims to most of what is now Ohio.

2. France having set up a republic, and being at war with Great Britain, asked aid of the Americans in 1793. This was refused, and our country remained neutral.

3. The British, however, interfered with our commerce, and after a time began to seize American ships and take the sailors for service in the British navy. This very nearly brought about a war which was prevented, however, by the Jay treaty.

4. Spain claimed the right to forbid all navigation of the Mississippi by any but Spanish vessels. This shut out the Western settlers from a market for their produce. At last, in 1795, a treaty was secured which opened the river to all Americans.

5 At the end of his second term Washington refused to be re-

elected, and went home to rest after his long and distinguished service to his country. He died in 1799, the most illustrious man in America.

6. Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee were admitted to the Union as States during Washington's administration.

Collateral Reading.—Roosevelt's "Winning of the West," I., 78-86, 110-124, 134-144, 245-250, 268-271, 278-281; II., 11-25; Seelye's "The Story of Washington," 345-348, 350, 351, 355.

CHAPTER XXXI

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS

Election of Adams.—The election of 1796 saw the first contest of rival political parties for supremacy in our government. John Adams was the chief candidate of the Federalists, Thomas Jefferson the leading candidate of the Republicans. Adams received seventy-one electoral votes, Jefferson sixty-eight, other candidates (really candidates for Vice President) less. Under the system then in use this made Adams President and Jefferson Vice President.

John Adams

Trouble with France.—Jay's treaty prevented war with England, but it came near getting us into war with France. That country was now governed by a Directory, which held that in making a treaty with Great Britain the United States had taken sides against France, and when our government sent Charles Cotesworth Pinckney to be our minister at Paris, the Directory refused to receive him, and asked him to leave France. News of this occurrence reached the United States just before Adams was installed as President.

The X, Y, and Z Proposition.—Fearing war with France, President Adams called an extra session of Congress to make preparations. About the same time he sent John Marshall, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, and Elbridge Gerry to Paris to settle all difficulties if possible. Instead of receiving the three Americans as had been promised, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs sent agents of the Directory to them to suggest that as the only way to restore good feeling between this country and France they must secretly pay a large bribe to each of the five members of the Directory, and at the same time arrange for a money loan from the United States to the French Government. The American Ministers refused to yield to such a demand. In their despatches to Congress Marshall and his companions did not give the names of the three agents who had asked for the bribe. They simply called them X, Y, and Z. From this the transaction came to be known as the X, Y, Z affair.

Costume of the Directory period

When this matter was made public the people of America turned bitterly against the French. The popular cry was raised, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute." Those who had before sympathized with France now turned against that nation. Many of them had worn a red, white, and blue cockade as a sign of their sympathy with the French. They now put on a black cockade, which meant that they wanted war. The song, "Hail Columbia," was composed at this time, and sung throughout the land.

Congress ordered the organization of an army, and appointed Washington to be its commander. A naval department was also established in April, 1798, and vessels were sent out to sea as fast as they could be got ready. They captured several French men-of-war and many privateers. France did not really desire war with the United States, and so she made known her wish to reopen negotiations for

peace. The difficulty was settled in September, 1800, between American ministers and Napoleon Bonaparte, who had come to the head of the French government as the First Consul.

Three Unpopular Laws.—When Adams, who was a Federalist, became President his party controlled the Senate, while the Republicans were in the majority in the House of Representatives. During the excitement over the expected war with France the Federalists, being the war party, had gained strength among the people. They took advantage of this in order to enact three laws which proved to be displeasing to the people. These were passed in 1798.

The first of them required every foreigner who came to this country to live here fourteen years before he could become a citizen. Only five years had been required before. The second law gave the President the right to order any alien or foreigner not naturalized, to leave the country if he considered it dangerous for the man to remain here. This was called the Alien Law. The third act made it a crime to oppose any measure of the government, or to write or say things to the discredit of the government, the President, or Congress. This was called the Sedition Act. These Alien and Sedition Laws were intended to keep foreigners from coming to the United States and interfering with the management of public affairs.

The Resolutions of 'Ninety-eight.—In November, 1798, the legislature of Kentucky passed resolutions denouncing the Alien and Sedition Laws, and in December of the same year the legislature of Virginia did the same. These resolutions claimed for each State the right to set aside national laws, and this claim played an important part in the struggles over tariff laws and slavery during the next half century. Copies of the resolutions were sent to the other States. Only seven of them replied, and they differed in opinion with Kentucky and Virginia.

Downfall of the Federal Party.—Before the Constitution was adopted the Federal party consisted of all men who

favored the acceptance of the Constitution by the States. After the government was organized upon the new plan the party consisted of those who wished to construe and apply the Constitution in ways which would strengthen the central government. Opposed to them were all who feared a strong central government as dangerous to the liberty of the States, and these presently formed themselves into the Republican party, as we have seen (page 202).

When trouble arose with France the Federalists gained popularity by favoring war, but they lost it presently by sending a second mission to France after the first one had been so grossly insulted. The passage of the Alien and Sedition Laws still further weakened the Federalists. Democratic feeling was rapidly growing throughout the country. When the election of 1800 occurred John Adams's party had grown too weak to reëlect him.

Chief Justice Marshall.—In the last months of Adams's term he made an appointment which in its influence upon American government and history proved to be the most important act of his life. He made John Marshall * Chief Justice of the United States. From his appointment in 1801 until his death in 1835 Marshall in his decisions interpreted the Constitution so logically, so consistently, and altogether so admirably as to give it a breadth and meaning which it could not otherwise have had.

John Marshall

The Second Census, taken in 1800, showed a population of 5,309,000. The increase was largely in the region west of the mountains. The rich lands there were offered to settlers at very small cost, and multitudes of enterprising men seized the opportunity to better their condition.

* For biography, see Appendix.

Summary.—1. John Adams and Thomas Jefferson were the leading candidates for President to succeed Washington. Adams was elected by a majority of the electors, Jefferson becoming Vice President.

2. Trouble broke out with France, and when ministers were sent to that country to settle it the French Minister of State demanded a bribe. This was refused, and for a time war was threatened. American ships captured several French war ships and privateers, but the matter was arranged peaceably in 1800.

3. During Adams's administration some laws were passed called the Alien and Sedition Laws, which greatly alarmed and offended many of the people. Democratic feeling grew so rapidly that when a new election came, in 1800, John Adams was defeated by his Republican rival, Thomas Jefferson.

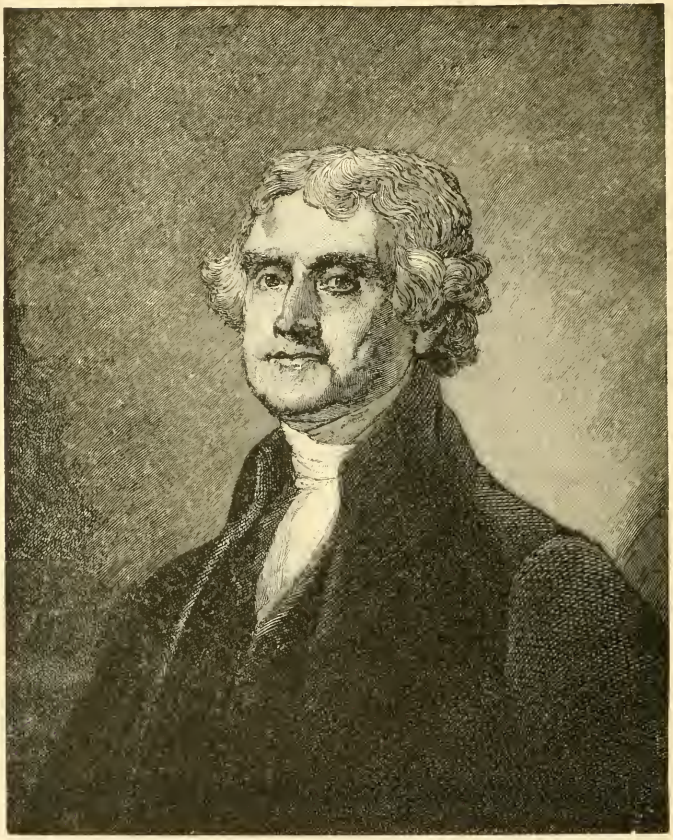
4. John Marshall was appointed to be Chief Justice.

Collateral Reading.—Schouler's "History of the United States," I., 273-287, 391-398, 423-426, 475-476; Walker's "The Making of the Nation," 137-143, 145-150.

CHAPTER XXXII

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION

The Election of 1800.—It has already been explained (page 197) that under the system first provided for the election of Presidents each elector voted for two candidates, and the one having the highest number of electoral votes, if the choice of a majority of the electors, was to be President, while the one next to him in the number of votes became Vice President. In the election of 1800 the seventy-three Republican electors voted for Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr and the sixty-five Federal electors with a single exception voted for John Adams and Charles C. Pinckney. The Republicans intended that Jefferson should be President and Burr Vice President. But as Jefferson and Burr had an equal number of votes neither was elected. The House of Representatives, therefore, under the Constitution must choose one of the two to be President.

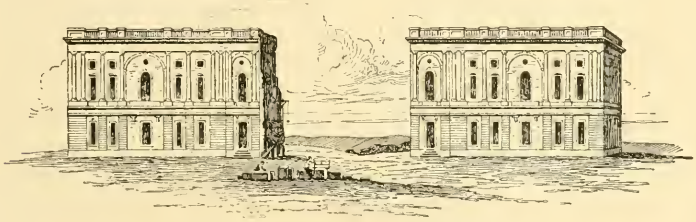


Th. Jefferson

The Federalists greatly disliked Jefferson, and most of them voted for Burr. The first ballot was eight States for Jefferson, six for Burr, and two blank, the representatives of two States being equally divided. As nine States were necessary for a choice, balloting was kept up for a week, amid great excitement, and there was danger that the 4th of

March would come before a choice could be made. To prevent this some of the Federalists cast blank votes, and Jefferson was elected President, leaving Burr to be Vice President. In 1804 the Constitution was so amended as to prevent a like difficulty in future. It was provided that each elector, instead of voting for two men for President, should vote for one for President and one for Vice President.

The New Capital City.—In the autumn of 1800 the capital was removed to Washington city, as had been provided by law ten years before. During that ten years the city had been laid out, and a capitol, of which Washington himself laid the corner stone, had been partly built. Jefferson was



The Capitol at Washington, about 1800

the first President inaugurated in the new capitol. He went on foot and in ordinary dress to the building where he took the oath of office. It was his fixed purpose to introduce simple manners into governmental affairs.

Jefferson's Measures.—The Republican majority in Congress repealed some laws made by the Federalists. They reduced the size of the army and navy, cut down the expenses of government, and used surplus revenues in paying the national debt. Jefferson introduced into the public service the theory that both political parties should be fairly represented in the offices, and that vacancies should be made only by the death, resignation, or necessary removal of those already in the service. He refused to appoint any of his own relatives to office on the ground that the people would not believe that such appointments were given for merit alone.

Trouble with Tripoli and Algiers.— The little Barbary States—Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco—lying on the northern coast of Africa, lived chiefly by piracy. Their swift armed vessels would lie in wait to capture and rob the ships of Christian nations, carrying off their crews to be sold as slaves, or to be ransomed by the payment of money. Instead of putting down these pirates, the nations of Europe protected their own trade by paying large sums of money every year as a tribute to the piratical states. In 1785 two American vessels were seized by the pirates and carried to Algiers, where their crews were sold as slaves. An effort was made to ransom them, but Algiers demanded as much as sixty thousand dollars for their release. Eleven more American vessels were captured in 1793, and one hundred and nine men were carried into slavery.

In 1795 the United States made a treaty with Algiers, paying that country a large sum of money for the freeing of all Americans who had been captured and enslaved. The American government also promised to pay tribute every year on condition that American ships should not be seized. Soon afterwards our government made treaties with Tunis and Tripoli, paying money for the release of captured Americans, but not promising an annual tribute, as had been done in the case of Algiers. In 1800 Tripoli demanded that the United States should give her a frigate or a brig of war, and in the next year the Bey of Tunis sent word that he wanted forty cannon and ten thousand stands of arms. These things were not sent, and in 1801 the Pasha of Tripoli declared war on the United States.

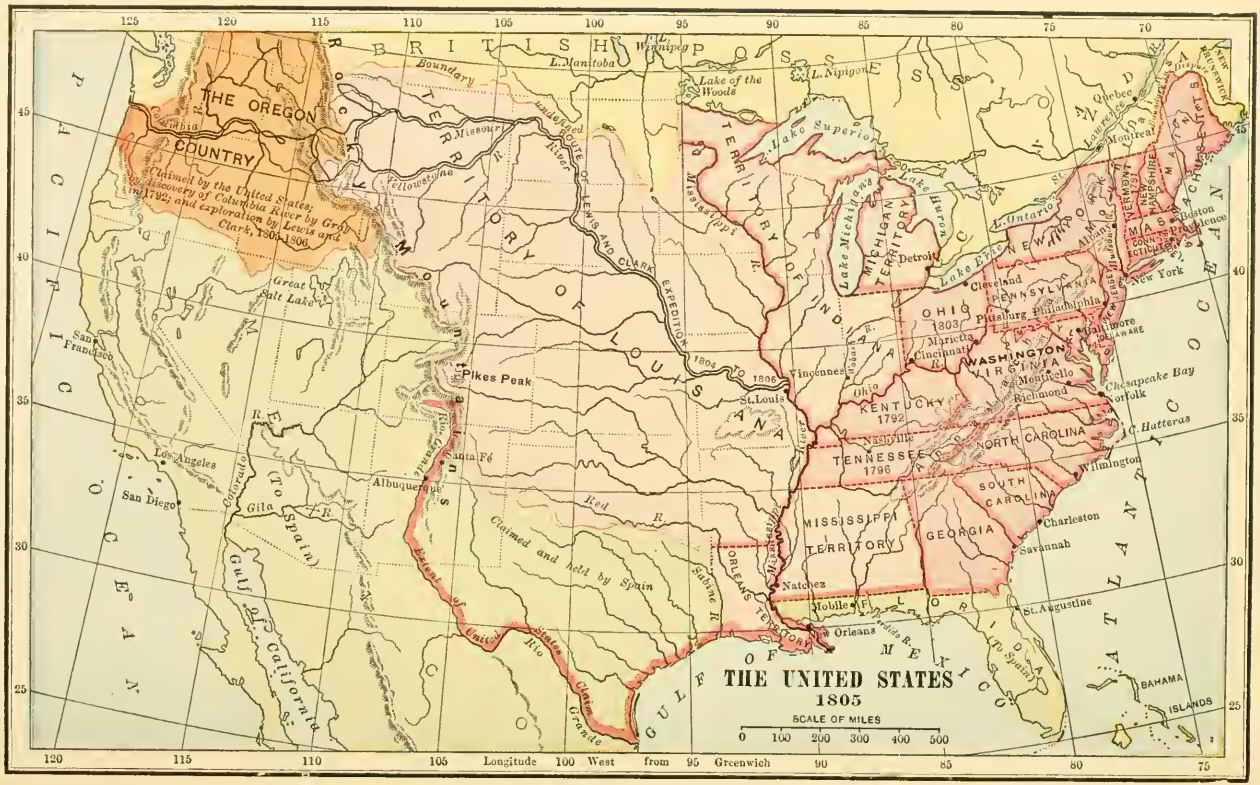
The War with Tripoli.—President Jefferson would not consent that this country should pay tribute to petty piratical states, and sent over a little fleet of war vessels. Tripoli had sent out ships to meet and capture American merchant vessels, and the frigate "Philadelphia" blockaded some of these cruisers near Gibraltar, while the frigate "President" ran into the Mediterranean and captured a pirate vessel near the coast of Tripoli. This checked piracy for a time, but

did not end it completely. In 1803 Commodore Edward Preble was sent to the Mediterranean with additional vessels and ordered to take command. He directed the "Philadelphia" and the sloop "Vixen" to blockade Tripoli. In chasing a blockade runner the "Philadelphia" struck an unknown rock and was captured by the Tripolitans. Her commander, Captain Bainbridge, and his crew of more than three hundred Americans were made prisoners.

Decatur's Exploit.—It stung the American officers to the quick, as they lay off Tripoli, to see the "Philadelphia" lying in the harbor with the flag of Tripoli floating over her. A young officer named Stephen Decatur had command of a little ship which he had captured from the enemy and had named the "Intrepid." In this little ship he sailed into the harbor, carrying with him a Maltese pilot, whose speech would not betray the fact that the "Intrepid" had an American crew. The pilot hailed the men on the "Philadelphia" and reported that he had lost both his anchors. He asked permission to tie up his little ship by the side of the big one for the night. No sooner had Decatur made his ship fast to the "Philadelphia's" side than with his seventy-five officers and men he boarded her, drove her piratical crew overboard, set fire to her, and returned to the "Intrepid." As he sailed away to the sea the shore batteries pounded his little ship, while his men gave cheer after cheer of triumph. Decatur had not lost a man.

Peace with Tripoli.—After two years more of blockading and fighting, a large American fleet appeared before Tripoli in 1805, and the Pasha quickly came to terms. He accepted a moderate sum as a ransom for his prisoners, and consented to a treaty of peace.

The Purchase of Louisiana.—In the year 1800 Spain agreed with Napoleon to cede Louisiana back again to France. The agreement was kept secret for a time, Napoleon not being ready to take possession. The Spanish officer who was in control at New Orleans during this waiting time issued an order in 1802 forbidding Americans to ship their produce


THE UNITED STATES
1805
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich
THE OREGON COUNTRY
Claimed by the United States; by discovery of Columbia River by Gray in 1792; and exploration by Lewis and Clark, 1803-1806.
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
CANADA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
TERRITORY OF LOUISIANA
TERRITORY OF INDIANA
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
OHIO 1803
KENTUCKY 1792
TENNESSEE 1796
MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY
ORLEANS TERRITORY
GEORGIA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
WASHINGTON
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW HAMPSHIRE
VERMONT
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
FLORIDA
Pikes Peak
Great Salt Lake
Claimed and held by Spain
Extent of United States Claim
Rio Grande
Gulf of California
(To Spain)
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake of the Woods
L. Manitoba
L. Winnipeg
L. Nipigon
Quebec
Montreal
Boston
Providence
New York
Philadelphia
Pittsburg
Cleveland
Detroit
Cincinnati
Marietta
Vincennes
St. Louis
Nashville
Richmond
Monticello
Norfolk
Chesapeake Bay
C. Hatteras
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
St. Augustine
Mobile
New Orleans
Natchez
Santa Fé
Albuquerque
San Francisco
Los Angeles
San Diego
BAHAMA ISLANDS
Columbia R.
Yellowstone R.
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Red R.
Sabine R.
Colorado R.
Gila R.
Boundary
Lawrence
Ontario
Hudson R.
Ohio R.
Mississippi R.
Red River
Rio Grande
Sandy R.
Lewis and Clark Expedition 1804 to 1806
Route of Lewis and Clark
Longitude 100 West from 95 Greenwich

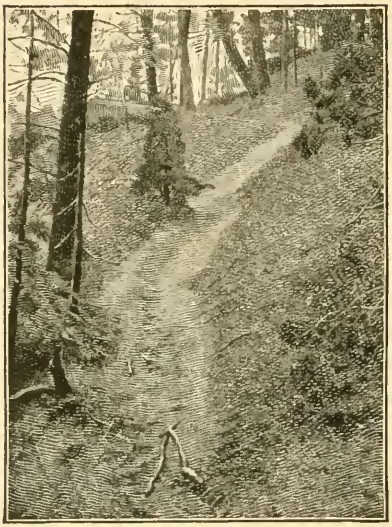
to New Orleans, as they had a right to do under the treaty made seven years before. The people who lived in the valley of the Mississippi were greatly excited over this order, which deprived them of a market for their goods.

Not wishing to go to war in order to keep the French out of Louisiana, Jefferson got leave from Congress to buy New Orleans and the region round about, together with West Florida. James Monroe was sent over to help the American minister at Paris in making the purchase. Napoleon at that time was on the eve of another war with England, and in view of that he offered to sell not only New Orleans, but the whole vast region then called Louisiana. This offer was so good that the American commissioners accepted it without waiting for orders, and within less than three weeks the whole matter was completed. The United States paid fifteen million dollars for the territory thus gained. It was larger in area than the whole of the United States had been before. It included nearly all the region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. This region was soon divided into the two Territories of Orleans and Louisiana.

The Oregon Country.—A good many years before this time a certain Captain Gray * sailed from Boston to trade in the Oregon country on the Pacific coast, after which he went to China and on around the world, reaching home in 1790. Two years later he went to Oregon again, and entered the great river which the Indians called by that name. He named it after his own ship, the "Columbia." His discovery gave the United States a claim to all the territory drained by the Columbia River.

Lewis and Clark's Expedition.—In 1804 Jefferson sent Meriwether Lewis and William Clark on a most daring and romantic expedition up the Missouri River and across the Rocky Mountains to the Columbia. The great region included in the Louisiana purchase was in large part an unknown land. Lewis and Clark were sent to explore both

* For biography, see Appendix.



A trail followed by Lewis and Clark, and still in use

that and the Oregon country. After two years and four months spent in the wilderness, during which time they had wintered on the Columbia River, the explorers returned to civilization. Their expedition, added to Gray's discovery, strengthened the claim of the United States to that far northwestern region.

Pike's Exploration.—In 1805 and 1806 Governor Wilkinson, of Louisiana, sent Lieutenant Zebulon Pike to explore the Western country. Pike went up the Mississippi nearly to its source. In the next year he reached the neighborhood of the mountain which we now call Pikes Peak.

Summary.—1. John Adams was defeated in 1800 for reëlection to the Presidency. A tie vote between Jefferson and Burr threw the election into the House of Representative, where Jefferson was chosen President. He was inaugurated in Washington city, which had become the capital during the year of his election.

2. After much trouble with the piratical states of North Africa Jefferson refused to pay them the tribute they demanded as the price of letting our ships and sailors alone. Instead of paying tribute he sent war vessels to the Mediterranean.

3. Spain having ceded Louisiana back to France, Jefferson purchased the whole of that region from Napoleon in 1803, thus securing for the United States nearly all the vast region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains.

4. Some years earlier an American ship captain had discovered the mouth of the Columbia River, and in 1804 an expedition under Lewis and Clark, sent out by Jefferson, went over the Rocky Mountains and wintered on the Columbia. This gave to the United States a claim to all the Oregon country. Another expedition under Pike explored the sources of the Mississippi in 1805.

Collateral Reading.—Schouler's "History of the United States," II., 16-18, 43-48; Walker's "The Making of the Nation," 168, 169, 177-180; McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," IV., 470-473, 478.

CHAPTER XXXIII

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION—*Continued*

The Election of 1804.—The election of 1804 was the first one held under our present method of choosing a President and Vice President. Thomas Jefferson, who was again the candidate of the Republicans for President, was reëlected, with George Clinton, of New York, for Vice President. Burr, having become unpopular, was dropped. The Federal party had by this time become very weak.

British Interference with Our Commerce.—War between England and France was declared again in 1803, and again the United States became involved in difficulties with both nations. Each tried to prevent American ships from trading with the other. During the previous war England had allowed American vessels to carry goods between France and her colonies, provided the ships did not sail directly from one French port to another, but stopped somewhere in the United States on the voyage. In 1805, however, England decided that American vessels must not carry French cargoes at all between that country and her colonies. Under this decision more than one hundred American ships were seized near our ports in that year, and a large part of their crews were forced into the British service.

The Non-importation Act.—In April, 1806, Congress passed an act forbidding the importation from England to America of certain articles which could be made in this country. The object of this was to teach England the importance of the American market for her goods, and thus

compel better treatment for our merchant ships. The measure failed to accomplish its purpose and was soon repealed.

Hostile Decrees of Great Britain and France.—England and France decided to injure each other by interfering with trade. Napoleon began it by forbidding British ships to enter the ports of Bremen and Hamburg. Next England declared France and all her allies blockaded. Napoleon in return issued a decree at Berlin declaring all English ports under blockade. In January, 1807, England put forth an order forbidding neutral ships to enter the ports of France or her allies, and in November of the same year another order was issued declaring that a neutral vessel attempting to enter any port in any country from which British ships were excluded should be lawful prey to England unless it had first landed in England. A month later Napoleon issued a decree from Milan declaring that no vessel bound for or hailing from Great Britain or her colonies should be considered a neutral, and that all such vessels should be subject to seizure.

The Embargo.—These things greatly annoyed the Americans and injured their commerce. But this country was not then well prepared to make war in defense of her rights on the sea. President Jefferson was trying to pay off the debt incurred by the nation during the Revolution, and the time seemed near when that might be done. The country had prospered greatly under Jefferson's administration, and he thought that without going to war the United States might force the repeal of the offensive decrees of England and France simply by stopping all trade of this country with the outside world. On his recommendation Congress passed an act in December, 1807, which forbade any merchant ship to sail from the United States for any foreign port. This act was called "the Embargo of 1807," and sometimes "Jefferson's Embargo."

The enactment of this law did much harm and no good. New England and New York suffered greatly by the de-

struction of their commerce, and some hot-headed people in the Eastern States even talked of dissolving the Union.

The "Chesapeake" and the "Leopard."—In the spring of 1807 the United States frigate "Chesapeake" lay at Washington getting ready to sail for the Mediterranean. The British minister notified our government that the "Chesapeake" had in her crew three deserters from the British navy, and demanded their surrender. The three men declared that they were American citizens who had been forced into the British service.

Fight between the "Chesapeake" and "Leopard"

In June the "Chesapeake" sailed, but a British war ship, the "Leopard," ran out ahead of her. When forty-five miles from land the "Leopard" hailed the "Chesapeake" and demanded a muster of the crew in order that a search might be made for deserters. This demand was refused. The "Leopard" then fired a shot across the "Chesapeake's" bow as a signal for her to stop. But she refused to stop. Thereupon the "Leopard" opened fire upon her, and soon compelled her to submit. The "Leopard's" officers boarded her and took off four of her crew, all of whom stoutly insisted that they were American citizens.

When the "Chesapeake" returned and reported this outrage there was great excitement, and war was freely talked

of, but Jefferson decided first to demand reparation from Great Britain. The British government disowned the act of which Jefferson complained, and issued an order for the return of three of the men seized. One of them had died, but two were formally returned to the "Chesapeake." The British also paid an indemnity to the families of the men who had been killed on board the American ship.

Burr's Conspiracy.—When Aaron Burr found himself at the end of his career in politics because of his conduct and character, which were detested by men of all parties, he grew very bitter towards those whom he held responsible for his downfall. Among these was Alexander Hamilton, and Burr by way of revenge harassed him until he forced him into a duel and killed him. This aroused great anger, and Burr saw clearly that there was no further hope for him either in public life or in the practice of his profession of the law. He therefore formed a plan to set up an empire for himself in the Southwest.

With a little body of men in 1807 he went down the Ohio and Mississippi as far as Natchez on his way to New Orleans. He there learned that his plans had been betrayed to the government. He sank his chests of arms in the river and fled. When arrested he was tried for treason on the ground that he had sought to separate Louisiana and the country west of the Mississippi from the Union. No act of the kind that the law calls treason could be proved against him, and he was therefore released.

The First Northwestern State.—After Wayne's treaty with the Indians was made (1795) a great tide of emigration set in which rapidly peopled the Northwest Territory. In 1800 the Territory was divided, and its western part was erected into a new Territory called Indiana. The eastern part with new limits was admitted to the Union as the State of Ohio, February 19, 1803.

Summary.—In 1804 Jefferson was reëlected President, with very little opposition.

2. War having again broken out between England and France, both

of those countries adopted measures to injure each other's trade. These measures nearly destroyed American commerce.

3. What still survived of our commerce was ruined by the Embargo Act of 1807. This was a law stopping all trade between the United States and other countries.

4. The British still claimed the right to search American ships and take from them sailors whom they held to be Englishmen. The United States war ship "Chesapeake" was boarded by the British war ship "Leopard" in 1807, whose commander took off four of her sailors. Jefferson demanded reparation, and the British government ordered the return of three of the men seized and paid money to the families of the men who had been killed in the fight.

5. Having killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel, Aaron Burr found himself everywhere detested. In anger and disappointment he planned to set up an empire for himself in the Southwest. His plans were discovered, and he fled. He was afterwards arrested and tried for treason, but was not convicted.

Collateral Reading.—Schouler's "History of the United States," II., 62, 96-98, 101-103, 119-122, 145-148, 158-165; Walker's "The Making of the Nation," 199-203.

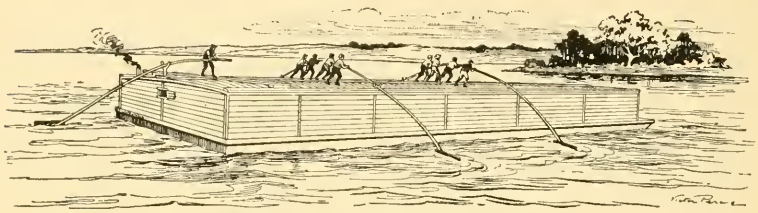
CHAPTER XXXIV

WATER TRAVEL

Boats and Boating.—Before the Revolution nearly all the settlements in this country lay either upon the seacoast or along the banks of rivers. The people's easiest method of getting about and of carrying their goods from one point to another was by boats. In the early colonial days, as we have seen, the boats were mainly canoes or very small sailboats. Little by little larger boats came into use, and especially sloops and schooners, which had been introduced by the Dutch.

Flatboats.—On the Western rivers the most familiar form of craft was the flatboat. This was a mere box, fifty or more feet in length and sixteen feet wide. It had no slope at bow or stern. The bow was merely a place for getting in and out. At the stern was a little cabin where the boat-

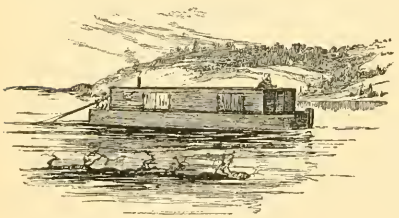
men slept and did their rude cooking. Even after steam boats came into use the greater part of the carrying on



Flatboat

Western rivers was done with flatboats. Hundreds of them went down the Ohio and Mississippi every year.

The Keel Boat.—Unlike the flatboat, the keel boat was not built to be broken up after a single journey. She was intended to ply both up and down the river. Keel boats were usually pushed up the stream with long poles. Where the current was too strong for this the boat was "cordelled," that is to say, she was pulled up the river by her boatmen, who walked on the bank, tugging at ropes so arranged as to make the steering easy.



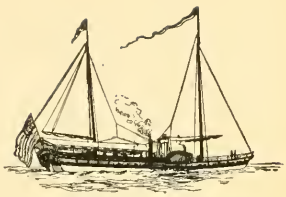
Keel boat

Early Experiments with Steam.—Robert Fulton * was not the inventor of the steamboat, but it was he who first brought steamboats into practical use. As early as 1783 John Fitch had built a steamboat on the Delaware. After a time it was abandoned as a practical failure. Another man, named Rumsey, experimented with a steamboat in 1786. It was a failure from the first.

Stevens's Experiment.—John Stevens, of Hoboken, New Jersey, on the Hudson, was a man of wealth and great

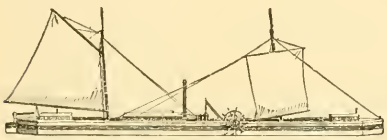
* For biography, see Appendix.

mechanical ability. He worked for many years over the problem of using steam to drive boats. He finally built a boat with a tubular boiler and a screw propeller, two things which were brought back into use as new inventions long after Stevens had ceased to employ them. Stevens was a year behind Fulton in building a side-wheel steamboat and getting it to work well. As Fulton had secured the sole right to run steamboats on the Hudson, Stevens sent his craft to Philadelphia.



Stevens's steamboat

Fulton's Success.—Those who had gone before Fulton with their experiments had tried nothing better than the old-fashioned steam engine then in use for pumping water. Watt had invented a much better kind of engine, and Fulton got permission to bring one of these to America. He went to England to superintend the building of it, and in 1807 he ran his first steamboat, the "Clermont," from New York to Albany and back again. This was the beginning of practical steam navigation.



The "Clermont"

Western Steamboats.—The great length of the Western rivers, and the lack of roads and bridges in that rapidly-growing region, gave special importance to steamboats in that part of the country. Only four years after the "Clermont" was launched on the Hudson, Fulton had a steamboat afloat which ran on the Ohio from Pittsburg all the way to New Orleans in 1811. Within a few years the Western rivers were thronged with steamboats of every size and style, and as the years went on these grew better and finer until at the time of the Civil War many of them were floating palaces. After the Civil War railroads were built in every direction, and little by little the steamboat lost its control of the carrying trade.

Summary.—1. In colonial days, when most of the settlers lived near the coast, canoes, rowboats, and sailboats were their easiest means of travel.

2. When the settlers reached the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, flatboats were used for floating down these rivers, and were broken up for lumber at the end of the voyage. Keel boats were also used, which were poled or "cordelled" up stream.

3. Fitch, Rumsey, and Stevens experimented with steamboats in the latter part of the eighteenth century, but Robert Fulton made the first successful steamboat, and ran it up the Hudson in 1807.

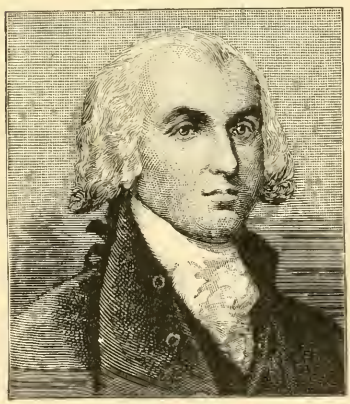
4. In 1811 steamboats were launched on the Western rivers, and for many years were the favorite means for travel in that region.

Collateral Reading.—Parton's "Book of Biography," 155-158; McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," IV, 397-407.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR OF 1812

The Election of Madison.—Following the example of Washington, Jefferson refused to be elected President for a third term. In 1808 James Madison was the Republican candidate, and was elected by a large majority, with George Clinton for Vice President.



James Madison

The Repeal of the Embargo —The Non-intercourse Act.—Just before Madison took office Congress repealed the embargo which had forbidden all trade between this and foreign countries. In its place Congress enacted a Non-intercourse law. This act permitted trade with all countries except England and France, and authorized the President to permit trade with either of those countries whenever it should withdraw its unfriendly orders or de-

crees. This act went into effect on the day of Madison's inauguration and was repealed in 1810. Under it commerce quickly revived, but our ships were sometimes seized by the English and French.

The act repealing it provided that if either Great Britain or France should cancel her hostile decrees American ships should be forbidden to trade with the other of the two nations. Napoleon announced that his decrees would cease to be in force after November 1 of that year if the United States would again declare non-intercourse with England. As England still refused to revoke her orders against us the President issued a proclamation on November 2 permitting trade with France, but forbidding it with Great Britain unless she should within three months revoke the hostile orders.

This had no effect. British cruisers lay in wait for American merchant vessels leaving port, and captured many of them. In May, 1811, a British frigate boarded an American brig and impressed one of its passengers, a native of the United States, into the British service. A few days later the American frigate "President," which had been sent out to demand the delivery of the man, encountered the British ship "Little Belt" at sea. Somehow the two ships got into a fight with each other although war had not been declared. This affair still further angered the Americans, and it was obvious that war was not far off.

Indian War in the Northwest.—In the meanwhile actual war with the Indians in the Northwest was in progress. It had been stirred up by Tecumseh and Elkswatawa, twin brothers, of the Shawnee tribe. They gathered around them men of all tribes, and taught them that the treaties by which Indian lands had been bought by our government were not binding. They held that no one Indian tribe could sell or cede its land, but that all the Indians owned it. Tecumseh made long journeys to different tribes, and drew into his scheme many young warriors who were eager to fight the white men.

In 1810 William Henry Harrison * made a treaty at Fort Wayne by which the Indians ceded to the United States three million acres of land on the upper Wabash, including the tract on which Tecumseh's Indians had settled, though they had no claim to it. Tecumseh threatened to kill the Indian chiefs who had made this treaty, and he gathered about him warriors enough to endanger the entire Northwestern region.

Battle of Tippecanoe.—William Henry Harrison was at that time governor of Indiana Territory. He was a young man

Battle of Tippecanoe

of great personal courage and much military ability. In July, 1811, he marched from Vincennes to attack Tecumseh's brother at Tippecanoe Creek before he was ready to bring on the war. Harrison made demands of the Indians which they asked time to consider, but as Tecumseh was absent the Indians set themselves to dancing and howling until, becoming excited, they set upon the white men before daylight. In the battle that followed they were severely defeated. This was called the battle of Tippecanoe, and it made Harrison famous. But although the Indians were defeated Tecumseh was not crushed, nor had he and

* For biography, see Appendix.

his brother, who was called "The Prophet," lost their influence over the Indians.

The Declaration of War.—The elections of 1810 had brought into Congress many men who were in favor of war with Great Britain in defense of our commerce. The States were already organizing their militia and preparing for the struggle. Madison was anxious to avoid war, but was at last induced to yield to the popular will, and on June 18, 1812, war was declared by Congress.

Plan of the Campaign.—The Americans planned to invade Canada and conquer it before troops could arrive from England. England, however, struck the first blow, taking Fort Mackinac, on an island in the strait between Lake Michigan and Lake Huron.

Hull's Surrender.—William Hull, governor of Michigan Territory, was made a brigadier general, and placed in command of troops who were to invade Canada. He crossed into Canada on the morning of July 12, 1812, just above Detroit. Meeting no opposition he went into camp and issued a proclamation offering the protection of the United States to all Canadians who should take no part in the war. He fortified his camp, but delayed making an attack on Malden, the British post which lay near. On the 28th news came that Fort Mackinac had been taken, and Hull did nothing more except go back to Detroit. On the 16th of August the British General Brock, with an army much smaller than Hull's, crossed into Michigan, and Hull, without a fight, surrendered the fort, his army, and the Territory of Michigan.

The West in 1811–12

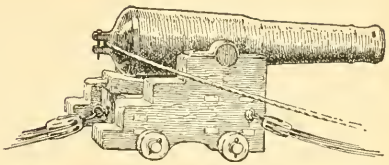
Two other invasions of Canada were attempted, one of them by way of the Niagara River, and the other by way of Lake Champlain. Both completely failed.

The War at Sea.—Great Britain at that time had more than a thousand fighting ships, while the United States had only sixteen, with a few gunboats. The officers of our navy were well trained and as gallant men as ever stood upon a deck. At the outset nothing was expected of our little navy except to defend the coast while the army should conquer Canada.

The Capture of English Ships.—But while the army was failing in its first campaign, as we have seen, the gallant little navy was doing deeds that still echo in history. On July 13, three days before Hull's surrender, the American frigate "Essex," under Captain Porter, while cruising alone off the coast of Newfoundland, disguised as a merchantman, attacked and captured the British ship "Alert," which was convoying a fleet of transports. This was the first war vessel taken from the English, and though it was a much smaller ship than the "Essex" the capture was a surprise to both sides. Four days later five British ships chased the frigate "Constitution," and continued to pursue her for three days and nights; but the American ship was so well sailed that she escaped in safety. The commander of the "Constitution" was Captain Hull, and his skill on this occasion gave him a high reputation for seamanship.

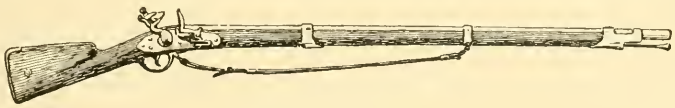
One of the vessels which pursued the "Constitution" was the frigate "Guerriere." In the next month Captain Hull put to sea again in the "Constitution," and on August 19th he encountered the "Guerriere," and captured her after an engagement of only half an hour. Two months later the American sloop "Wasp" captured the English brig "Frolic." About the same time Decatur, with the frigate "United States," attacked and captured the "Macedonian" near the coast of Africa. In spite of the distance, Decatur brought his badly shattered prize to port, in Connecticut. Finally, during this same year, the "Constitution," under

Captain Bainbridge, captured the British frigate "Java" near Brazil.



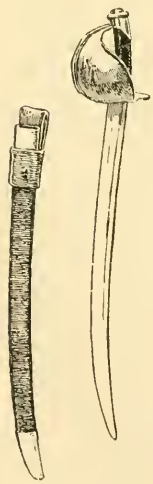
Cannon mounted for navy

As the war had grown out of England's aggressions at sea, both officers and men of the navy were ready to risk everything for victory. Orders to a commander, directing him to stay in port, often found him beyond reach of delivery, he having put to sea in haste for fear that such orders would come. When battle was on, the officers of



Flintlock musket

American ships were so eager to board the enemy's vessel, that they sometimes held one another back in the efforts of each to be the first over the side of the ship.



Cutlass

The "Hornet" Sinks the "Peacock."—The loss of five war ships in as many months was a grievous shock to England, and she blamed her naval authorities for having underrated the American navy. The next year opened with another loss for England. In February, 1813, Captain Lawrence in the "Hornet" met the British ship "Peacock," and sank her so quickly that she carried down part of her own crew and three men from the "Hornet" who had gone to the rescue.

The "Chesapeake" and the "Shannon."—Captain Lawrence was promoted to the command of the "Chesapeake" and joined her shortly before she was ready to sail from Boston. He had no time to organize or

train his crew, and many of his men were untrustworthy. The British cruiser "Shannon" lay off Boston Harbor in full view, waiting for the "Chesapeake" to come out. Captain Lawrence sailed out on June 1, 1813. Late in the afternoon the two ships met about thirty miles at sea, and the battle opened. It lasted only fifteen minutes. Lawrence fell mortally wounded. As he was carried from the deck he gave his last order: "Don't give up the ship." The British boarded the "Chesapeake" with little resistance and were soon in possession.

Other American Losses at Sea.—In July of this year the American brig "Argos," cruising near the English and Irish coasts, captured a large number of British merchant vessels. The British brig "Pelican" encountered the "Argos" and captured her. Early in 1814 the "Essex" was captured and destroyed by two British vessels, the "Phœbe" and the "Cherub," after a gallant resistance.

Summary.—1. James Madison was elected in 1808 to succeed Jefferson as President.

2. Congress repealed the Embargo but passed other laws concerning British and French interference with our commerce. These acts failed of effects, and the trouble with England grew worse.

3. Meanwhile a war with the Indians was going on in the Northwest. It was ended for a time in 1811 by the battle of Tippecanoe, in which Harrison defeated the forces of the Indian chief Tecumseh.

4. Matters between this country and England grew steadily worse, and war was declared in the summer of 1812.

5. The United States had scarcely any navy, while the British navy was the strongest in the world. The American plan was for the navy to guard the coast while the army should push into Canada and conquer that region before the British could send armies to defend it. The plan failed completely. One of our three invading armies surrendered without a battle, and the other two accomplished nothing of moment.

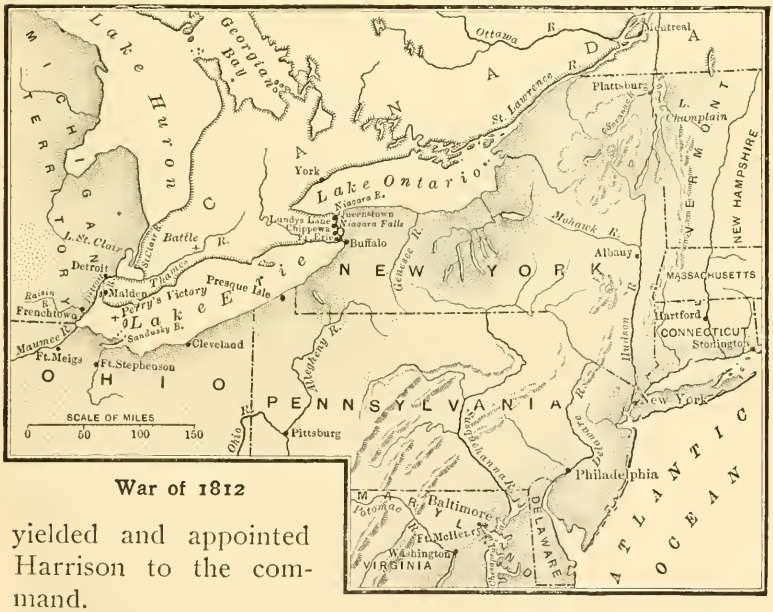
6. On the other hand, our little navy did wonders that year. Our war ships captured five British armed vessels within five months, and set the country wild with rejoicing. During 1812 the results at sea were less unequal, several American ships being captured or destroyed.

Collateral Reading.—Eggleston and Seelye's "Tecumseh," 151-155, 207-210, 216-223, Roosevelt's "The Naval War of 1812," 82-92; 283-289; Rhodes's "History of the United States," II., 30-37.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE WAR TO ITS CLOSE

Harrison with the Army of the Northwest.—The news of Hull's shameful surrender threw the people into a frenzy of anger, particularly in the West. They clamored loudly for the recapture of Detroit, and to that end General Winchester, a Revolutionary officer, was appointed to command the Northwestern army. But the Kentuckians, who largely made up that army, refused to follow any one but Harrison, who had led them to victory at Tippecanoe. The President



War of 1812

yielded and appointed Harrison to the command.

The River Raisin.—In January, 1813, while leading the advance of Harrison's army, Winchester went to the relief of Frenchtown, in Michigan, on the River Raisin. The town had been attacked by a force of English and Indians. As

Winchester advanced, Colonel Proctor, of the British army, crossed the Detroit River on the ice, attacked the Americans with a much stronger force and overcame them. Winchester was made prisoner, and surrendered his men. Proctor withdrew to his station at Malden with six hundred prisoners, leaving the wounded Americans to be massacred by the Indians, though he had promised to protect them.

Fort Meigs and Fort Stephenson.—In May, and again in July, Proctor with his British force laid siege to Fort Meigs, General Harrison's advanced post, but on both occasions he was beaten and forced to retire. He then made an attempt on Fort Stephenson, a weak stockade, with a single cannon to defend it. Major Croghan, a young Kentucky officer, made a brilliant defense, and repulsed a British force many times outnumbering his own.

The Invasion of Canada.—In order to invade Canada successfully the Americans must first secure control of the Great Lakes. Captain Isaac Chauncey had been set to do this. He went in person in August, 1812, to Lake Ontario, where the British were strongest. By capture and purchase he soon gathered together a little fleet ready for use, while better vessels were building. By the spring of 1813 he was so far in control of the lake that he could aid and protect a military expedition against the town of York, now known as Toronto. The town was captured, and the house in which the Parliament met was burned. In the next month the Americans attacked Fort George, at the mouth of the Niagara River, and after a sharp conflict the British withdrew and blew up the fort. They also abandoned the other forts on the Niagara frontier.

Perry's Victory.—In March, 1813, Oliver Hazard Perry, a captain in the navy, was sent to Presque Isle, now Erie, with orders to form a fleet and secure control of Lake Erie. By September Perry had built five vessels, and secured four others by capture and by purchase. On the 10th of September Perry's fleet came within sight of Captain Barclay's little

British squadron of six vessels in the western part of the lake. The British brought all their guns to bear on the flagship "Lawrence," and she was soon battered beyond all use. Then Perry seized his flag, which bore the motto "Don't give up the ship," and springing into a rowboat hurried to the "Niagara" under a galling fire from the enemy. Gaining the "Niagara's" deck he continued the fight with such vigor that he carried the "Niagara"

Perry's victory on Lake Erie

through the British line, and in fifteen minutes Captain Barclay was forced to strike his colors.

It was in the flush of victory that Perry wrote his famous dispatch to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner and one sloop."

Detroit and the Battle of the Thames.—When news came of Perry's victory, Harrison set out for his headquarters on the margin of the lake. His whole army assembled there and Perry's ships carried them to a point near Malden. On reaching the fort, Harrison found it in ruins. Proctor had set fire to it and retreated in deadly terror of the vengeance

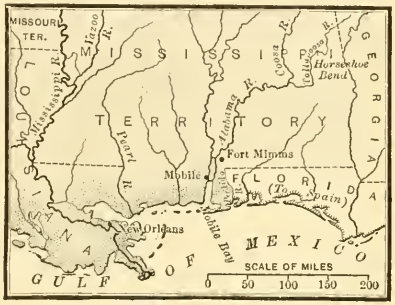
of the Kentuckians, whose watchword was " Remember the River Raisin."

Harrison followed Proctor to Sandwich opposite Detroit, only to find that place also abandoned. He sent a brigade across the river to take possession of Detroit. Continuing the pursuit of Proctor's army Harrison overtook it on the River Thames, October 5, 1813. The British were drawn up under cover of a wood. A furious charge was made upon them, headed by Colonel Richard Johnson's regiment of mounted Kentuckians. These men were accustomed to ride full tilt through the forest, carrying their rifles in their hands. Before their impetuous dash the British line gave way, and when the Kentuckians reached their rear they wheeled about to the right and left, pouring a deadly fire into the broken lines. The British threw down their arms, and the whole force surrendered. In this battle Tecumseh, who had become an officer in the British army, was slain. Proctor escaped.

The Campaign of 1814.—In 1814 the army on the Niagara frontier was placed under command of General Jacob Brown, with Winfield Scott, Edmond P. Gains and E. W. Ripley commanding brigades. The early part of the year was spent in drilling the men, and in July the army was put in motion. It took Fort Erie without a blow, and on the 5th the British were driven from a well chosen position on the Chippewa River. Three weeks later the British having been reënforced returned toward their former position and were met at Lundys Lane on July 25, by General Scott with the advance forces. General Brown arrived soon after dark with the main army and a battle followed which lasted until midnight. The Americans were victorious in this battle, but they were so badly outnumbered by the British that they retired the next day to Fort Erie. The British tried to recover Fort Erie but were unable to do so either by assault or by siege, though it was afterwards abandoned by the Americans.

The Creek War.—In the Autumn of 1812 Tecumseh had

visited the southern tribes of Indians, urging them to war against the whites and had won many of them by his eloquence. After his departure a comet appeared, and some of the Creek Indians along the Alabama took it for a message from Tecumseh. Soon afterwards there came the shock of an earthquake which in the minds of the savages was also a threat from Tecumseh. The British, through the Spanish at Pensacola, Florida, furnished these Indians with arms, and very soon afterwards they made war. The white people from the surrounding country fled to Fort Mimms, not far from Mobile, and were there attacked and massacred in August, 1813, by the hostile Creeks who were led by Wetherford, or "Red Eagle." Four hundred Americans, men, women, and children, were slain.



Seat of the Creek War

The whites at once entered upon a war of extermination against the hostile Creeks, and many of the Indians were killed by the volunteer forces sent into their territory. General Andrew Jackson conducted this war on the American side, and in March, 1814, he attacked and carried a strongly fortified and stoutly defended position held by the Creeks at the Horse Shoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River. Here Jackson won a complete and final victory, and forever broke the power of Wetherford and his Creeks. He made a treaty by which the Indians gave the greater part of their territory to the United States.

The Capture of Washington and the Siege of Baltimore. —The fall of Napoleon, and the end of the long war with France, enabled England to put new vigor into her war with the United States. She increased her naval force, and declared our whole coast blockaded. Raids were made

at different points in New England. In August, 1814, General Ross, with four thousand five hundred men, landed in Maryland, and overthrew the American force at Bladensburg, near Washington, where President Madison and his cabinet were on the field in person. When the militia retreated in disorder, the British advanced to Washington, and set fire to the Capitol, the "White House," and other public buildings, in retaliation for the burning of York, Canada, the year before. The next day they withdrew unmolested.

A month later Ross made an attempt to capture Baltimore. He was vigorously resisted and finally beaten off. Fort McHenry, which guarded the city, was furiously bombarded by the British fleet for a whole day and night, but it held out to the last, and the British fleet withdrew from Chesapeake Bay. It was during this bombardment that our patriotic song, "The Star Spangled Banner," was written. Francis S. Key, the author of the poem, had been sent to the fleet to secure the release of some prisoners, and the British detained him there till the bombardment was ended. As he sat there a temporary prisoner, on board an enemy's vessel, watching a bombardment on which the fate of Baltimore and perhaps of the whole nation depended, he was moved to write the stirring lines of that song.

Macdonough's Victory—Jackson at Pensacola.—In September, 1814, a British army of twelve thousand men, supported by a strong fleet of fighting ships on Lake Champlain, invaded New York from Canada. Commodore Macdonough, in command of a little fleet of American ships, anchored at Plattsburg to await the coming of the enemy. When they came a desperate combat occurred (September 11) and at the end of two hours and a half the last of the British ships had surrendered. The land forces had meanwhile made some show of attacking Plattsburg, but seeing their fleet completely beaten they retreated in confusion.

A month before this (August, 1814) a British force landed at Pensacola, Florida, and fortified themselves there. In

November, General Jackson* marched from Mobile, attacked the British at Pensacola, carried the place, and drove the enemy out of the fort. He then withdrew, leaving the Spanish authorities in possession of the town.

Battle of New Orleans.—The object of the British in raiding the New England coast, and attacking Washington and Baltimore, was largely to intimidate the Americans, and hold their attention while preparations were making

Battle of New Orleans

for an invasion of Louisiana, and the capture of New Orleans, which would give the British control of the Mississippi. In November, 1814, fifty ships sailed from Jamaica for New Orleans, carrying an army of twelve thousand English veterans, under General Pakenham.

But Jackson, too, was on his way to New Orleans. Placing the city under military law, the great backwoods

* For biography, see Appendix.

general set to work to create an army out of such materials as he could find. He formed companies of free colored men, and other companies of convicts taken from the prisons, and enlisted all the merchants and their clerks who were fit to fight. He drilled and disciplined these, and soon had about five thousand men, including three hundred Tennessee volunteers under Coffee, who had fought desperately in the Creek war. He erected batteries, and armed a little ship in the river for use as a gunboat.

On December 23 half the British army appeared a few miles below New Orleans, and Jackson, when he heard the news, cried: "We'll fight them to-night." After dark Jackson assailed them with his motley little force, throwing them into confusion, and compelling them to wait for reenforcements before attempting to march into the city as they had expected to do on the next morning. On the 8th of January, 1815, the whole British army stormed Jackson's works. They were repulsed with great slaughter, and Pakenham was killed.

Treaty of Peace.—Two weeks before this battle was fought a treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain had been signed at Ghent, in Europe, but news traveled so slowly in those days that it was not until February that tidings of this treaty reached New York. News of Jackson's brilliant victory had spread all over the country a week before. The treaty of peace gave the United States none of those things for which the war had been fought. But the struggle had won for this country such a position among nations that Great Britain thereafter respected the rights of Americans.

The Hartford Convention.—The Federalists had from the first opposed the war with England, and the last stronghold of that party was in the New England States. The people there were divided in opinion regarding the war. They feared that peace could never be made except on terms unfavorable to New England interests. In October, 1814, a convention was held at Hartford, Conneticut, for the pur-

pose of uniting the New England States, and making certain demands on the National government. The session was secret, but it was thought that the Federalists were planning to withdraw the New England States from the Union. This belief caused great anger in other parts of the country.

Algerian pirate

The Dey of Algiers.—The Dey of Algiers took advantage of the withdrawal of the United States cruisers from the Mediterranean during this struggle to declare war against us. An American vessel was captured by the pirates, and her crew sent into slavery. When our war with England was ended, the United States sent a squadron of eleven vessels, commanded by Decatur, to deal with the piratical state. When Decatur's ships appeared before Algiers the Dey fell into a fright, and gave up his prisoners and his claim to the payment of tribute.

Summary.—1. After Hull's surrender General Harrison was sent to command the Army of the Northwest. A part of his force was defeated, and the wounded left to be massacred by the Indians on the River Raisin.

2. In 1813 the British twice besieged Fort Meigs, but were forced to retire. An American force crossed Lake Ontario, took the town of York, burned the Parliament building there, and forced the British to abandon all their posts along the Niagara.

3. In September, 1813, Captain Perry's fleet captured the British squadron near Sandusky, Ohio. This enabled Harrison's army to cross into Canada, where, after recovering Detroit, it captured the whole British army at the battle of the Thames, October, 1813.

4. In 1812 the Indians in Alabama and Georgia had been stirred up by the chief Tecumseh and armed by the British. They made war upon the Americans. General Andrew Jackson completely routed them.

5. In the summer of 1814 General Brown took Fort Erie, drove the British from the Chippewa River, and won the fierce battle of Lundys Lane.

6. In August, 1814, General Ross landed in Maryland, entered Washington and set fire to the public buildings there. A month later he besieged Baltimore, but was stoutly resisted and finally beaten off.

7. In September, 1814, Commodore Macdonough captured the whole of the British squadron on Lake Champlain.

8. The British landed an army below New Orleans on December 23. Jackson attacked and threw them into confusion, thus securing time in which to fortify. On the 8th of January, 1815, the British assailed Jackson's little army, but were terribly beaten.

9. A treaty of peace had been signed two weeks before this battle, but neither side knew it. Although the subject was not mentioned in the treaty Great Britain let our ships alone thereafter.

10. During this war with England the Dey of Algiers again declared war upon us. As soon as peace was made with Great Britain an American fleet was sent to bring the Dey to terms. It did so quickly.

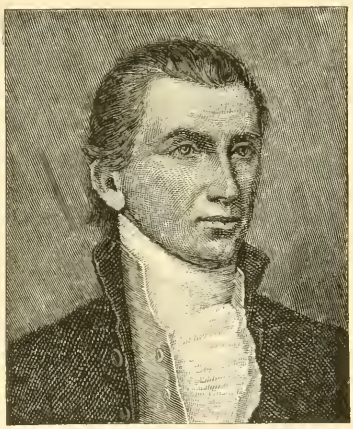
Collateral Reading.—Roosevelt's "The Naval War of 1812," 262-271, 387-309; Parton's "Life of Andrew Jackson," II., 188-209; G. C. Eggleston's "Red Eagle," 136-301.

THE PERIOD OF COMPROMISE

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE ERA OF GOOD FEELING

Monroe's Election.—The Republicans had gained great favor with the people during the war of 1812, which was called "the second war for independence," and in the presidential election of 1816 the Republican candidate, James Monroe,* of Virginia, was chosen with only thirty-four electoral votes against him. Monroe had been one of the leaders of the Republicans from the beginning, and was Secretary of State under Madison. He was very popular, and at the end of his first term was re-elected with only one electoral vote against him. The time of his administration was called "The era of good feeling." The Federal party was almost extinct, as a result of its opposition to the war.



James Monroe

The Seminole War and the Acquisition of Florida.—The Seminole Indians in Florida had long been the enemies of the Americans. Encouraged by the Spanish and British, after the war of 1812 had ended, they continued to ravage the frontiers of Georgia and Alabama. They were assisted

* For biography, see Appendix.

in this by runaway negroes, to whom a British captain had given a strong fort heavily armed and supplied with a great quantity of powder. These negroes were especially active in war upon the Americans, and in 1816 the Spanish Governor at Pensacola was asked to turn them out of their fort. As he did not do this an American force assailed the stronghold. A hot shot fell into the powder magazine, which blew up and killed two hundred and seventy negroes, leaving only thirty to escape.

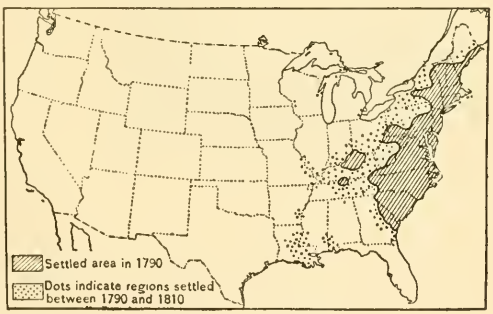
The ravages continuing, General Jackson was sent to suppress the Indians. Without authority from the government he marched into the Spanish territory, captured some towns, hanged two British subjects, and then took Pensacola itself. Our government afterwards gave up the town to the Spanish to whom it belonged, and in 1819 Spain made a treaty defining our southwestern boundary (see maps, pp. 220, 256-7) and selling all of Florida to the United States for five million dollars. The treaty was ratified in 1821, and General Jackson took possession of Florida as its governor.

The Monroe Doctrine.—Mexico and the Spanish colonies in South America, one after another, threw off the authority of Spain, and were recognized as independent republics by the United States. The European powers were afraid of the growth of republican ideas and opposed to the setting up of republics anywhere. In 1815 Russia, Austria and Prussia formed what was called the Holy Alliance to suppress all republican movements in Europe. In 1823 this Holy Alliance decided to extend its operations to America, and help Spain recover her lost colonies. In this they sought England's help. The British government refused, and offered to join the United States in protecting the little republics.

By way of giving notice of our attitude in this matter, Monroe sent a message to Congress (December 2, 1823) in which he reminded Europe that this country in no way interfered with affairs in the Old World, and set forth what has ever since been known as the Monroe Doctrine. The

message declared "That the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintained are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers." It further gave notice to the European powers "That we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety." Referring to the Spanish-American republics the message went on to declare that the United States "Could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States." This was a Declaration of Independence for all America, and our government has ever since maintained the principle.

The Peopling of the West.—The Census.—During the hard times that accompanied and followed the War of 1812-15, a great emigration from the more easterly States had poured into the Mississippi valley, rapidly filling up the fertile regions west of the Appalachian Mountains. The census of 1810 showed a population of 7,240,000 in the whole country, and the number of people had increased by 1819 to about 9,000,000. The West had grown faster than the country as a whole had done, and new States had been rapidly created in that quarter. Louisiana was admitted to the Union April 30, 1812; Indiana, December 11, 1816; Mississippi, December 10, 1817; Illinois, December 3, 1818; and Alabama, December 14, 1819.

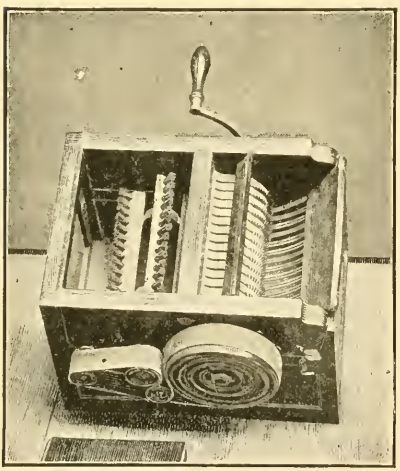


Settled area in 1810

Then for the first time a Territory (Missouri) lying wholly west of the great river and in the latitude of the Northwest Territory, asked admission as a State, and for the first time the question of slavery presented itself to the country in troublesome form.

The Missouri Compromise.—During the early years after the Constitution was adopted all the States north of Maryland and Delaware, where slave labor was not profitable, had gradually abolished slavery. In the South slavery had become very profitable.

Near the end of the eighteenth century Eli Whitney * had invented a machine called the cotton gin. Before that time it had not been profitable to raise cotton, because of the difficulty of removing the seeds. This was so great that a person working at it could not remove the seeds from more than a pound or so of cotton in a day. Eli Whitney's machine enabled a man to remove them from a thousand or two thousand pounds in a day, and cotton became the great staple crop of all the far southern States.



Model of cotton gin

Negro slaves were the best laborers in the cotton field, and so slavery came to be a valuable labor system there. The older States in that region retained it, and their people rapidly settled the southern Territories west of them, opening cotton plantations there, to be cultivated by their negroes. Every new State formed out of territory south of the Ohio River came into the Union with slavery estab-

* For biography, see Appendix.

lished, while under the ordinance of 1787 every State formed out of the territory northwest of the Ohio prohibited slavery.

Thus, in 1819, there were eleven free States and eleven in which slavery existed. The people of the two sections had come to have different interests, and to wish for different national laws. Each section wished to prevent the other from getting too much power.

In 1819 Maine asked admission as a State, and at the same time the Territory of Missouri applied for a like privilege. There were slaves held in the Missouri Territory, and the people there wished their State to come into the Union with a constitution permitting slavery. Many people in the North were unwilling to have slavery established in a State so far north, or to have it extended into any part of the region west of the Mississippi. But the Southern members of Congress refused to admit Maine as a free State unless the Northern members should allow Missouri to come in with slavery.

After much discussion the matter was settled for the time by what is known as the Missouri Compromise, a measure supported, though not devised by Henry Clay.* This compromise provided that Missouri should be admitted with slavery, but that slavery should be forever prohibited in all the rest of the Louisiana purchase lying north of latitude 36° 30′, the southern line of Missouri (see map, pp. 256-7). As Texas then belonged to Mexico, the United States owned very little territory south of the compromise line and west of the Mississippi River. The angry discussion of this matter had aroused a good deal of hostility between the people of the two sections, and from that time until the Civil War the slavery question was a constant source of trouble.

Lafayette's Visit.—In 1824 Lafayette came to visit the country he had done so much to help in its struggle for independence. He visited every State and all the important cities, and was received everywhere with enthusiasm. Con-

* For biography, see Appendix.

A reception to Lafayette

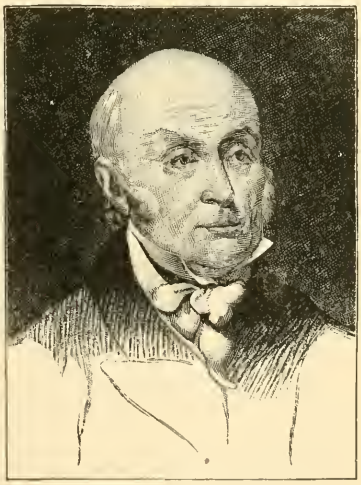
gress voted him two hundred thousand dollars and a township of land, or twenty-three thousand acres, in return for his services in the Revolutionary War. He laid the corner-stone of Bunker Hill Monument.

New Tariff Laws.—When the first tariff act was passed, in 1789, there was very little manufacturing in this country. The duties under that tariff were laid upon imports chiefly for the purpose of raising money for the government. When the war of 1812 came the tariff duties were doubled by way of meeting the cost of the war. All of these early tariffs were mainly for revenue, though in all of them some provision was made for protecting and developing American manufactures.

The Embargo of 1807 and the Non-intercourse Act had shut out British goods, and for lack of them Americans had begun manufacturing many things which had not been made

in this country before. When the foreign trade was opened again by the ending of the war, the British manufacturers sent over large quantities of goods, and sold them so cheap that American manufacturers were alarmed lest their business should be ruined by competition. It cost more to manufacture goods in America than in England where labor was much cheaper. The manufacturers, therefore, desired further tariff protection, and in 1816 a new law was passed which raised the duty on cotton cloth, woolen goods and articles made of iron. This was the first tariff act in which the principle of protection was made prominent.

The Tariff of 1824.—Another tariff act was passed in 1824. It increased the duties already in force, and taxed many articles for the express purpose of protecting American manufacturers against their foreign rivals. This tariff was made almost wholly for the sake of protection, but it promised to yield more revenue than the government needed. Henry Clay and others, therefore, proposed that the extra money should be used to build roads, dig canals and make other "internal improvements." Henry Clay called this policy of imposing high duties for the protection of home manufacturers, and making roads and the like at the expense of the national government, "the American System."



John Quincy Adams

The Election of 1824.—There was now no foreign question to disturb the country, and the Missouri Compromise had quieted the slavery dispute for a time, at least. There were four presidential candidates in 1824, all of them Republicans. They were Craw-

ford, John Quincy Adams, Clay and Jackson. The Federal party was dead.

Jackson got more electoral votes than any other candidate but not a majority of all. There was, therefore, no election by the people, and the choice of a president fell to the House of Representatives, which elected John Quincy Adams.* John C. Calhoun * was chosen Vice President by the electoral vote.

New Political Parties.—Soon after Adams became President the old Democratic-Republican party was divided into two parties. At first these were called "Adams men," and "Jackson men," but the Adams men took the name of National Republicans, and the Jackson men came to be called Democrats. The National Republican party included many of the old Federalists, and it wished, as the Federalists had done, to strengthen the central government. It favored Clay's policy of internal improvements, a protective tariff and a national bank. The Democrats opposed all of these measures.

Population and the States.—The census of 1820 showed a total population of 9,630,000. Maine was admitted as a State, March 15, 1820, and Missouri, August 10, 1821, swelling the total number of States to twenty-four.

Summary.—1. In 1816 James Monroe was elected President with little opposition, and in 1820 he was reëlected with only one electoral vote against him. The Federal party was almost extinct, and nearly everybody was now a Republican. This period was called the "era of good feeling."

2. The Seminole Indians continued to make war on the whites in Alabama and Georgia. As the Spanish authorities in Florida would do nothing to suppress them and their runaway negro allies, General Jackson was sent to rid the border of this annoyance. He marched into Florida, seized Pensacola and compelled a peace. In 1819 Spain sold Florida to the United States.

3. President Monroe in 1823 sent a message to Congress in which he gave notice that European nations must not interfere with affairs on this side of the ocean.

* For biography, see Appendix.

4. When Missouri was ready to come into the Union as a State a great quarrel arose over the question whether slavery should be permitted in that State. After long discussion the question was settled by the Missouri Compromise (1820).

5. In 1824 Lafayette visited this country and was welcomed by the government and the people.

6. During Monroe's administration the tariff was greatly increased, and Clay urged the policy of constructing roads and canals at the expense of the general government.

7. In the election of 1824 there was no Federal candidate, but four Republicans were voted for, no one of whom got a majority of the electoral votes. The House of Representatives chose John Quincy Adams to be President.

Collateral Reading.—Schouler's "History of the United States," III., 283-289; Rhodes's "History of the United States," II., 30-37.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

ROADS, CANALS, AND RAILROADS

Land Travel before the Railroad.—The Indian trail was the only road through the forest in the early days of settlement, and travelers went about on foot. Then came the saddle horse and pack horse, but the roads were rough and narrow tracks, winding among trees which were "blazed" to mark the way. The trader carried his wares in canoes and shallow boats. Gradually roads were made and freight was carried in large covered wagons. As the Revolutionary period drew near, public stage wagons were introduced. There were no bridges over the large streams, and stage passengers had to be carried over in boats.

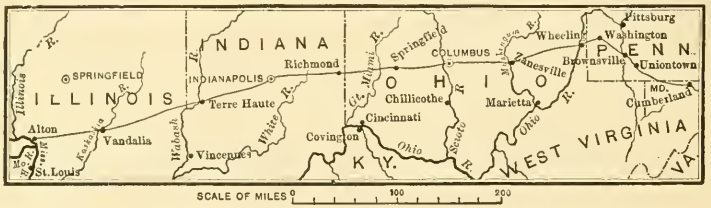
The Cumberland Road.—The rapid settlement of the Ohio Valley and the region west of the Alleghanies made necessary the improvement of means of communication with the East. When Ohio came into the Union in 1803 it was agreed that a part of the money which the sale of government lands in that State should bring should be used in the building of a wagon road to connect the Ohio River with

QUEEN CHARLOTTE IS.
Parallel 54 40
Boundary established by Treaty with Russia, 1824
BRITISH
Rocky Mountains
VANCOUVER I.
Georgia
PACIFIC OCEAN
OREGON COUNTRY
Astoria
Ft. Vancouver
Columbia
Boundary established by Treaty with Great Britain
49th Parallel
Missouri R.
Yellowstone
Occupied jointly by the United States and Great Britain under Treaty of 1818
42d Parallel
C. Mendocino
Great Salt Lake
Boundary established by Treaty
San Francisco
Monterey
Pikes Peak
Arkansas
Los Angeles
San Diego
Colorado
Gila R.
Albuquerque
Santa Fé
Rio Grande
Canadian
Gulf of California
Rio Grande
L.L. POATES, ENGR., N.Y.

THE UNITED STATES
in 1824
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
HUDSON BAY
James Bay
Lake Winnipeg
POSSESSIONS
Lake of the Woods
CANADA
Lake Superior
Quebec
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
Montreal
Kingston
Lake Ontario
Gaspe
Utica
Albany
Boundary line in dispute
NEW BRUNSWICK
MAINE 1820
Bangor
Portland
Portsmouth
Boston
Providence
Newport
New Haven
New York
Trenton
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Baltimore
Norfolk
Richmond
Raleigh
C. Hatteras
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Mobile
New Orleans
Natchez
Nashville
Knoxville
Lynchburg
Louisville
Cincinnati
Columbus
Wheeling
Pittsburg
Cleveland
Buffalo
Rochester
Detroit
Erie
Wilkesbarre
Chicago
Prairie du Chien
Council Bluffs
Ft. Snelling
Peoria
Springfield
Vincennes
Evansville
St. Louis
Little Rock
Memphis
Ft. Wayne
Ft. King
Okechobee
The Everglades
Bahama Pt.
Boundary between Free and Slave Territory
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
ILLINOIS 1818
MISSOURI 1821
ARKANSAS TERRITORY
LOUISIANA 1812
MISSISSIPPI 1817
ALABAMA 1819
FLORIDA TERRITORY
INDIANA 1816
OHIO
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
CONNECTICUT
RHODE ISLAND
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
95 90 85 80 75 70 65
50 45 40 35 30 25

the Atlantic coast. Plans for this road were formed in 1806, and the work was soon begun. The road began at Cumberland, in Maryland, and followed very nearly the route which Braddock had marched in 1755. This "Cumberland road" was thrown open to the public in 1818.

At the end of every twelve miles the stage horses were changed and wagoners got their meals at taverns. In the mountains the taverns or "wagon stands" were sometimes only a mile apart. In these a grate which would hold six bushels of coal was used to keep the wagoners warm in winter. The teams were usually of six horses. That part of this highway which lay west of Wheeling was commonly called the national road. It was intended to extend it to the



The Cumberland road

western limit of the settlements, but the coming of railroads rendered this unnecessary, and in 1831 the great thoroughfare was handed over by Congress to the care of the States through which it passed.

The Erie Canal.—Another important avenue of trade and travel which preceded the railroad was the Erie Canal. De Witt Clinton, Governor of New York, was determined to connect the Hudson River with the great lakes by a waterway. On the 4th of July, 1817, work was begun on the canal which was to accomplish this, and it was continued without interruption until it was completed. This canal was three hundred and sixty-three miles in length. On October 26, 1825, the water of Lake Erie was let into the great ditch at Buffalo and a long procession of canal boats started for Albany, where they arrived on November 2.

The boats were then towed down the Hudson to Sandy Hook, and there Governor Clinton, whose boat, the "Seneca Chief," headed the procession, poured a keg of water from Lake Erie into the Atlantic Ocean.

This canal was intended to make New York city greater

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Passenger canal boat

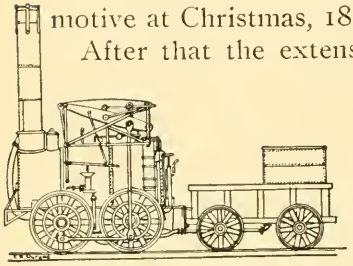
than Philadelphia, and it accomplished that purpose. It brought the products of the West to the sea, and carried goods from the East to the West at a cost greatly less than ever before. And with the connecting canals and natural waterways farther west, it has ever since kept down the cost of freight carriage. It also quickened travel at first. A passage of seven days between New York and Buffalo seemed then something wonderful. But only five years were to go by before another device for swift travel was to outdo all that had gone before.

The Railroad.—The first railroads in this country had wooden rails, and the cars on them were drawn by horses. They were built to carry coal a few miles from mines to the nearest river or canal.

The first railroad in this country which was intended to carry freight and passengers was the Baltimore and Ohio line. It was planned to run from Baltimore to Wheeling. The first thirteen miles of it were completed in 1830, but the cars were drawn by horses. Peter Cooper* built the first

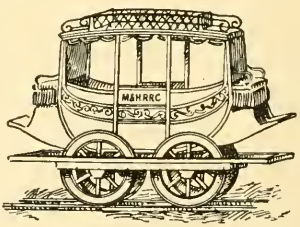
* For biography, see Appendix.

locomotive used on that railroad in 1830. The first railroad in America that had as much as a hundred miles of track was the line from Charleston, South Carolina, to Hamburg, and on that railroad the first train was drawn by a locomotive at Christmas, 1830.



Early locomotive

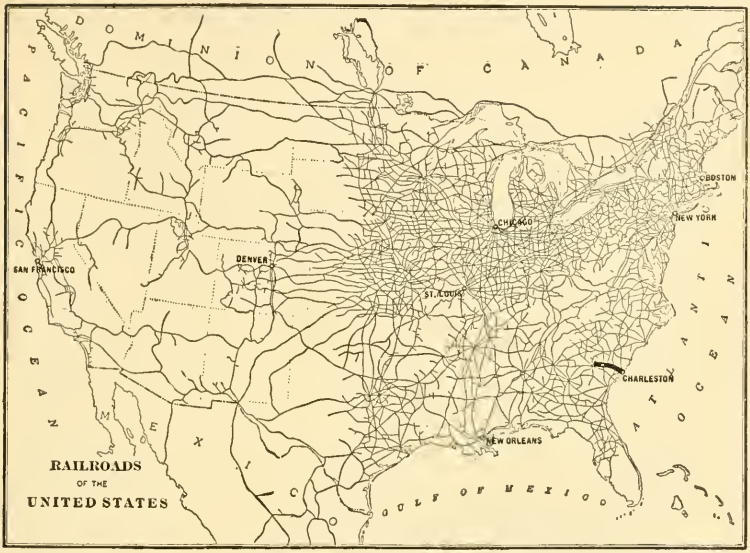
After that the extension and improvement of railroads was very slow for a time, but constant. It was not until after the Civil War that air brakes, improved couplings, safety platforms, steel rails fastened together at the ends, and other devices to make travel safe were introduced. Until the middle of the nineteenth century there were no such things as through trains over long distances. Every railroad was independent of every other. Each covered a comparatively short space, and at the end of each the passenger had to change cars, and often to wait two or three hours, even in the middle of the night. In going from New York to Cincinnati or Chicago or St. Louis, or even to Richmond, the traveler must change cars four, five, or six times, making long omnibus journeys from one railroad to another. There were no sleeping cars, no chair cars, no dining cars.



Early car

All this seems well-nigh incredible in our day, when everybody is familiar with through express trains that whirl passengers across the continent at from forty to sixty miles an hour in luxurious sleeping, drawing-room, and dining cars, with every comfort, including electric lights, libraries, bath-rooms, and barber shops.

We have now in the United States over two hundred thousand miles of railroads, or more than enough to girdle the earth at the equator eight times. We have more miles



Railroads, 1830, and 1903

of railroad than all Europe combined, and nearly as many as all the world outside our country.

Summary.—1. Wagon roads succeeded the Indian trails as a means of travel in America. These were gradually improved and extended.

2. In 1806 the national road, from Cumberland, Maryland, to the Ohio River and the West, was begun. It was opened to the public in 1818.

3. The Erie Canal was begun in 1817 and completed in 1825.

4. In the early part of the nineteenth century railroads with wooden rails were used in hauling coal from the mines and rock from quarries by means of horses.

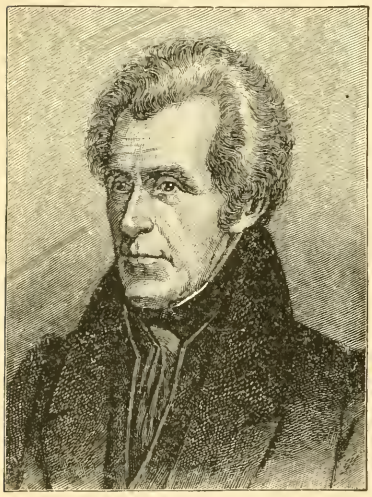
5. In 1830 a short road running west from Baltimore was opened for freight and passengers, horses pulling the trains. Later in the same year the first steam locomotive built in America was used on a railroad in South Carolina. There are now over 200,000 miles of railroad in the United States.

Collateral Readings.—Adams's "Railroads: Their Origin and Problems," 39-50; McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," IV., 407-419.

CHAPTER XXXIX

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION

The Election of Andrew Jackson.—The election of 1828 was a bitter personal contest between the candidates, Andrew Jackson and John Quincy Adams. Though a man of high character, Adams was not personally popular. While Jackson, as the hero of New Orleans, was in high favor. Besides this the plain people, especially in the West and South, were enthusiastic for him because he was one of themselves. He was elected by one hundred and seventy-eight electoral votes to only eighty-three for Adams.



Andrew Jackson

The Spoils System.—When he became President, Jackson acted upon the principle that "to the victors belong the spoils." He turned out of office those who were opposed to him in politics, and put his own friends in their places. He was the first President who used the public offices in this way as rewards for political service. During his administration the Postmaster-General became a member of the Cabinet.

The National Bank.—The charter of the first national bank, established in 1791, expired in 1811. As there was much opposition to the idea of a national bank, a new charter was refused. The war of 1812 left the country so much embarrassed for money that the State banks could not

redeem their bills in gold or silver, and so, in 1816, a new national bank was chartered for twenty years. When prosperity returned the people grew very jealous of the national bank, whose branches in various cities took business away from the State banks. A great fear arose, also, that a national bank, controlling the money affairs of the country, might make itself dangerous in politics.

The charter of the bank would not expire until 1836; but in 1832 its friends, having a majority in Congress, thought it a good time to grant it a new charter. Congress passed a bill to that effect, but Jackson vetoed it.

The Tariff of 1828.—A new tariff bill was passed in 1828. It imposed much higher protective duties than had been known before in this country, and these were so arranged that the measure satisfied nobody. John C. Calhoun, the Vice President, nicknamed it "The Tariff of Abominations." The South had hardly any manufacturies, and the southern people wanted to buy foreign goods without paying high duties on them. The South, therefore, felt itself wronged and injured by a tariff which forced the people of that region to pay high prices for their goods, and gave them no benefit in return. This seemed to them the same thing as requiring them to pay a tribute to the manufacturers of the Middle and Eastern States. This tariff did not satisfy even the people of the manufacturing States, because in trying to please all who asked for protection this law injured many of them quite as much as it benefited them.

Nullification.—Many of the features of this tariff were changed by a new law in 1832. But this new law still retained the very high protective duties of 1828. A State convention was held in South Carolina by which it was declared that the tariff as it stood was null and void in South Carolina, and that the duties imposed by it should not be charged on goods imported into that State after February 1, 1833. This was nullification. It was an attempt on the part of a State to say that a national law should not be enforced within that State.

Jackson was not in favor of a protective tariff, but he did not believe that the Union could hold together if any State could thus nullify its laws. He at once determined to compel South Carolina to submit to the law. He sent ships and soldiers to enforce the payment of duties.

The Compromise Tariff.—In this crisis Henry Clay proposed and Congress accepted a compromise. A new bill was passed providing for a gradual reduction in the protective duties, so that within ten years the highest of them should not exceed 20 per cent of the value of the goods taxed. This compromise settled the difficulty.

Indian Affairs.—In 1832 occurred what is called the Black-hawk War. The Indian chief, Blackhawk, at the head of the Sacs and Foxes, crossed the Mississippi to reclaim the land east of that river, which these tribes had once owned. He was beaten in two battles, and the Indians gave up their claims. In the same year the chiefs of the Seminoles agreed to remove their tribe from the Southeastern States to lands west of the Mississippi, but the treaty was not ratified for two years, and then some of the chiefs refused to obey it. The opposition was led by a chief named Osceola, and seven years of bitter war ensued. At the end of it those Seminoles who survived were removed to the Indian Territory. The Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws, and other tribes had already removed to that Territory, where lands had been given to them in exchange for those they had given up in Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, and Tennessee. The Indian Territory—which comprised most of the area now included in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Nebraska—was set apart for the Indians, under a policy which planned to settle all the tribes there. It was thought that that region was too remote ever to be wanted for white settlement, and that the removal of the Indians to it would settle the Indian question once for all.

Jackson Reëlected. — In 1832 Henry Clay was the candidate of the National Republicans, and Andrew Jackson of the Democrats. A third party called the Antimasons nominated William Wirt, of Virginia, as their candidate.

This party grew out of the fact that in 1826 a tailor named William Morgan in western New York had written a book professing to reveal the secrets of the freemasons. Morgan disappeared suddenly. Stories were told to the effect that the masons had killed him and sunk his body in Lake Ontario. The affair created a great excitement, and started a political party which was strong enough to cast 70,000 votes in 1829 and to carry Vermont in 1832 and Pennsylvania three years later. It was this party's purpose to keep freemasons out of public office on the ground that a freemason was a man who had bound himself to obey the commands of a secret order, even though obedience should make him a law breaker. Jackson was reëlected by a heavy majority.

The Removal of the Deposits.—Jackson was determined to break down the national bank at once. Without consulting Congress, he ordered the Secretary of the Treasury not to deposit any more government money in the bank, but to place the nation's funds in State banks instead, and to draw upon the deposits in the national bank for all expenses of the government until those deposits should be exhausted. This order was issued in September, 1833. The national bank thereupon decided not to lend so much money as it had done before to merchants, manufacturers, and others. There were many business failures, and the country grew greatly excited. Some blamed the national bank, and some blamed the President. The National Republicans in 1834 began to call themselves "Whigs," and tried to unite in one party all men who were opposed to Jackson, whom they nicknamed "King Andrew."

The Government Revenue.—The high tariff and the sale of western lands yielded so much money that in 1835 the government paid off the last of its debts and still had more money than it needed by about thirty-five million dollars a year. It was decided to get rid of the surplus money by distributing a large sum among the States. The money was not given outright to the States, but merely lent to

them, though it was understood that the government would never ask for its return. It has never done so.

Wildcat Banks.—Little banks had sprung up everywhere under various State laws. Some of them had capital and some had not. But all of them issued bank notes to be used as money, and speculators went on buying government land and paying for it in these notes. Such banks were called wildcat banks, and their notes wildcat money. When Jackson found that a large part of the money received for government lands was in bank notes of doubtful value he issued what was called "the specie circular," ordering government land agents to take nothing in payment for lands except gold and silver.

Settled area in 1830

New States and a New Census.—During Jackson's administration only two States were admitted to the Union, Arkansas on June 15, 1836, and Michigan on January 26, 1837. By the census of 1830 the population of the United States was found to be 12,870,000. Thus during the forty years since the first census was taken the country had multiplied its population by nearly three and a third.

Summary.—1. Andrew Jackson was the first President who used public offices as rewards for political service.

2. In 1832 Congress passed a bill to give the national bank a new charter for a long term of years. Jackson, who hated and feared the bank, vetoed the measure.

3. The "Tariff of Abominations," with very high protective duties, was passed in 1828. Though considerably changed in 1832, it still displeased the South. South Carolina attempted to nullify it, but Jackson promptly prepared to compel obedience. The matter was peaceably settled, however, by a compromise bill.

4. The Indian chief Blackhawk, in 1832, made war in the Northwest. He was beaten in two battles. Two years later a war broke out with the Seminoles in Florida, which lasted seven years. The principal western and southern tribes were removed to the Indian Territory.

5. In his second term Jackson determined to break down the national bank without waiting for its charter to expire, and deposited no more government money with it. The effect of this was to cause many business failures and much excitement.

6. The tariff and land sales brought so much money into the national treasury that the government paid off its debts and distributed a large surplus among the States as a loan.

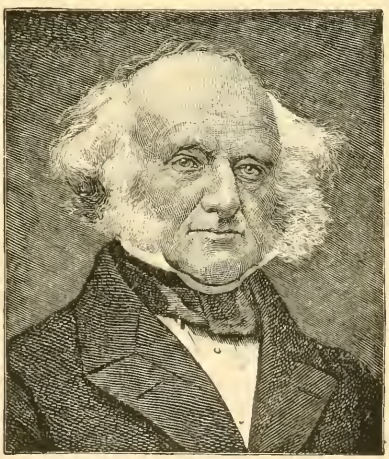
7. Little banks sprang up all over the country, issuing notes for use as money. Many of these notes were worthless or nearly so, but speculators used them in buying government land. Jackson stopped this by ordering the land agents to accept nothing but gold and silver in payment.

Collateral Reading.—Schouler's "History of the United States," III., 451-453; 455-459; McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," V., 227-231.

CHAPTER XL

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION; HARRISON AND TYLER

Martin Van Buren.—Jackson was so strong with his party that in 1836 he was able to dictate the nomination of his successor. He chose Martin Van Buren,* who was pledged in a general way to carry out Jackson's policy. Van Buren was elected.



Martin Van Buren

The Panic of 1837.—During Jackson's time all sorts of enterprises were planned in the hope of great gain. Money was loosely lent

* For biography, see Appendix.

without sufficient security to corporations intending to build railroads, lay out towns, and the like. Speculation was wild, and danger was near. When the government money was removed from the national bank it was distributed among State banks, who lent it freely to speculators. Next came the distribution of the surplus government money among the States. This money had been deposited in "pet banks." When it was wanted for distribution among the States these banks had to call in their loans and pay back the money. Last came the "specie circular," in which Jackson ordered the land agents to accept only gold and silver. In order to get the gold and silver with which to buy lands the speculators called on the banks to redeem their notes. Many of them could not do so. This led to trouble. Money became scarce, and many of the bank notes became nearly worthless. Prices fell, banks suspended payments, merchants failed, factories closed, and thousands of men were thrown out of employment. Even the government became embarrassed for want of money.

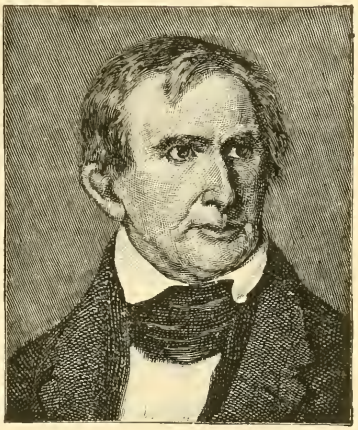
A New National Debt.—When this condition occurred Van Buren called a special session of Congress in September, 1837, and a bill was passed authorizing the Treasury Department to issue and sell interest-bearing notes for ten million dollars. This created a new national debt.

An Independent Treasury.—At the same session of Congress what was called the "divorce bill" was introduced. It was so called because it divorced the government finances from the banking system of the country. It provided that the public money should not be deposited in any bank, but should be stored in vaults in the various cities in charge of receivers. There was great opposition to this, and the bill did not pass until 1840. The Whigs repealed it in the next year, and the Democrats reënacted it in 1846.

The First Whig President.—In 1840 the Whigs nominated Harrison for President, and John Tyler,* of Virginia, a life-long Democrat, for Vice President. Van Buren was

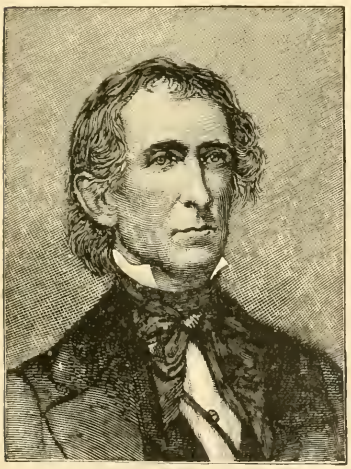
* For biography, see Appendix.

nominated by the Democrats, but he was blamed by the people for the panic of 1837 and the hard times that had followed it, and the country desired a change. Harrison was called "the poor man's friend." He was a military hero, and a man of integrity. The Whigs adopted the log cabin as their emblem because the Democrats had sneered at Harrison as a simple frontiersman. A log cabin was drawn on wheels in Whig processions, and pictured on badges and medals. Log cabin song books carried campaign songs all over the country, and after an exciting campaign Harrison was elected by a large majority.



William Henry Harrison

Tyler's Succession.—Harrison died a month after his inauguration, and Vice President Tyler succeeded him. Tyler was a Democrat in his convictions, and a Whig only in his opposition to the policy of Jackson and Van Buren. The Whigs had nominated him to secure Southern votes. As President he turned against them and vetoed a bill providing for a new national bank. All the members of the Whig cabinet except Daniel Webster* promptly resigned.



John Tyler

* For biography, see Appendix.

The Ashburton Treaty.—Webster retained his office of Secretary of State because he was engaged in negotiating a treaty of great importance with Great Britain, and desired to complete it. The boundary line between the northeastern part of our country and Canada had never been settled. Much trouble arose from this. In 1842 Lord Ashburton and Mr. Webster agreed upon a satisfactory settlement. Having carried this matter through, Webster resigned from the cabinet.

The Republic of Texas.—The United States had claimed Texas as a part of Louisiana, but that claim had been given up in 1819 in the treaty with Spain for the purchase of Florida. Texas thus became a part of the province of Mexico. When that province became a republic Texas formed one of its States. Americans from the Southern States settled in Texas, taking their slaves with them. They did not like the Mexican government, and in 1835 they rebelled. Led by General Sam Houston they drove the Mexican troops out, and Texas became an independent republic in 1836. The Americans there wanted their republic to become a State in the Union. The people of the Southern States favored this as it would increase slave territory, but the annexation was opposed by those who objected to slavery, and by many others who feared it might lead to a war with Mexico. Tyler made a treaty of annexation, but the Senate refused to ratify it. There the matter rested for a time, to come up later and give much trouble.

The Dorr Rebellion.—In Rhode Island nobody was permitted to vote except land owners and their eldest sons. The people petitioned in vain for the privilege of sharing in their government, and at last, in 1841, some of them tried to get up a new government of their own. The people called the Free Suffrage party elected a governor, State officers, and a legislature without any authority of law. The regular government without bloodshed put down this rebellion, which had been led by Thomas W. Dorr. A Constitution was then adopted which extended the right of suffrage. Dorr was

sentenced to imprisonment for life, but was released a year later.

The Oregon Boundary Trouble.—The treaty made at the close of the Revolution defined the boundary between the United States and Canada no farther west than the Mississippi River. The Louisiana purchase carried our territory as far west as the Rocky Mountains, and, as we have seen (p. 221), the discovery of the Columbia River by Captain Gray, and the exploration of Lewis and Clark in 1804, gave this country a claim to Oregon. A few years later an American fur trading settlement was made at the mouth of the Columbia River by John Jacob Astor, and was called Astoria. This gave the United States a new claim on the ground of occupancy. But Great Britain also claimed the country, and the English and American fur traders both occupied it for some years.

In 1818 Great Britain and the United States made a treaty which marked out the boundary line between the United States and Canada from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains along the forty-ninth parallel of latitude.

It was agreed in the same treaty that the fur traders of both countries should go on occupying the Oregon country together for ten years more. But the treaty did not say what the northern boundary of Oregon should be. Spain and Russia had also claimed that region, but Spain in 1819 accepted latitude 42° as her northern limit. Russia in 1825 agreed upon 54° 40′ north latitude as the boundary between her Pacific territory of Alaska and the Oregon country. This left the division of Oregon as a matter in dispute between the United States and Great Britain.

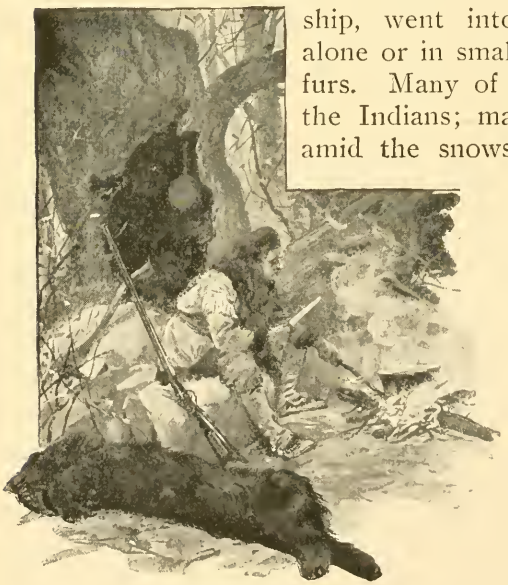
As settlers began moving into the country the question of its boundaries became important. Great Britain wished to make the Columbia River the northern line, while many Americans insisted upon 54° 40′ as the proper boundary. In the election of 1844 the Democrats raised the campaign cry of "Fifty-four forty or fight." The matter was settled by treaty in 1846, which divided the territory on the 49th

parallel, but gave Great Britain the whole of Vancouver Island.

The Great Unpeopled West.—For thirty or forty years after the exploration of the Oregon country by Lewis and Clark (see p. 221), and of the region east of the Rocky Mountains by Lieutenant Pike (see p. 222), there was no movement of immigration into regions that are now the richest grain-growing parts of our country. There was still enough government land east of the Mississippi to satisfy the desires of hardy immigrants from the East who wished to make farm homes for themselves.

Except in Missouri and the region south of that State, there were still no farming settlements of consequence anywhere west of the great river as late as 1840.

The Fur Trade.—But there was a harvest of wealth to be reaped there in other ways than by farming. The country abounded in fur-bearing animals, and daring men, who cared neither for danger nor for hardship, went into those wildernesses alone or in small parties in search of furs. Many of them were killed by the Indians; many starved to death amid the snows; many perished in other ways. But those who survived brought rich cargoes of furs to St. Louis and to Santa Fé, while John Jacob Astor's fur-trading posts in the Oregon country made him the richest man then in America.



Trapper at home

The Pathfinder.—But the great re-

Buffalo hunt

gion west of the Mississippi, and especially the Rocky Mountain part of it, remained practically an unknown land. Its pathways were unmarked on maps, and not described in books, and its resources were unknown, until, in 1842, 1843, and 1845 Lieutenant John C. Frémont* led three great government exploring expeditions across the western half of the continent, and won for himself the proud title of "The Pathfinder." The books, published by the government, in which he told the story of his marches, and set forth what he had found, were everywhere eagerly read, and they did much to stimulate emigration into the new Northwest.

The Census.—By the census of 1840 the country had a population of 17,070,000. On the last day of Tyler's term Florida was admitted to the Union as a State.

Summary.—1. Martin Van Buren was elected President in 1836.

2. In 1837 a panic occurred which greatly distressed the country. This panic led to the creation of a new national debt.

* For biography, see Appendix.

3. The people blamed the Democrats for the panic and the hard times, and in 1840 the Whigs elected William Henry Harrison for President, and John Tyler for Vice President. Harrison lived only a month after becoming President, and Tyler quickly broke with the Whig party, vetoing a bill to establish a new national bank.

4. A long-standing dispute with Great Britain concerning the northeastern boundary (between Maine and Canada) was settled in 1842 by the Webster-Ashburton treaty.

5. Texas having revolted from Mexico, became an independent republic in 1836. It asked to be admitted to the Union as a State. This was opposed by those people in the United States who objected to slavery and by many others who feared a war with Mexico. Tyler made a treaty agreeing to annexation, but the Senate rejected it.

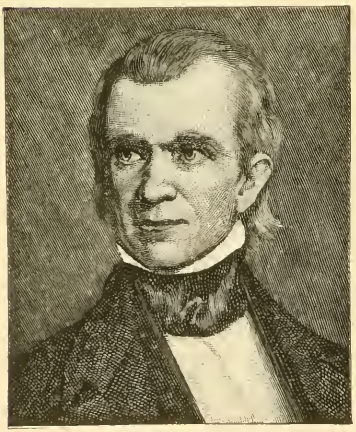
6. A little rebellion broke out in Rhode Island in 1841 called the Dorr rebellion. It was quickly suppressed without bloodshed, but it led to the adoption of a Constitution in that State extending the suffrage.

7. For a long time there was a dispute between Great Britain and the United States as to the northern boundary of Oregon. It was settled at last by treaty in 1846.

Collateral Reading.—Andrews's "History of the United States," II., 21-23. Rhodes's "History of the United States," I., 78-80. Andrews's "History of the United States," II., 30-33.

CHAPTER XLI

THE MEXICAN WAR



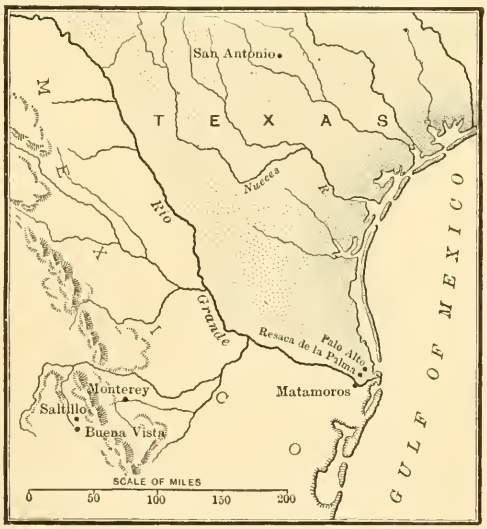
James K. Polk

The Election of 1844.—The question of annexing Texas was the leading issue in the election of 1844. The Democrats nominated James K. Polk,* who favored annexation, and for Vice President George M. Dallas, who opposed it. Henry Clay was the Whig candidate. He tried to please both sides on this question, and ended by satisfying neither. He offended the

* For biography, see Appendix.

southern Whigs by advising against the project, while he did not take strong enough grounds against it to suit the abolitionists in the North who had in 1840 formed the Liberty party in opposition to slavery. Polk was elected.

Texas Annexed.—After Polk's election, but before he came into office, Texas was annexed, and a few months later it was admitted to the Union as a State. Mexico had never given up her claim to Texas. She might have consented to the annexation but for a dispute that had arisen about the western boundary, which Texas claimed was the Rio Grande, while Mexico asserted it was the Nueces. Polk sustained the claim of Texas, and ordered General Zachary Taylor* to take possession of the country to the Rio Grande. Taylor stationed his forces opposite Matamoros, near the mouth of the river, and established a blockade.



Taylor's campaign

The Beginning of War.—In April, 1846, the Mexicans crossed the river and attacked some Americans. On the 8th of May Taylor encountered a Mexican force larger than his own at Palo Alto, and defeated them. They retreated to Resaca de la Palma, where Taylor overtook them the next day and again defeated them. The Mexicans then crossed to the southern side of the Rio Grande. Taylor followed and took possession of Matamo-

* For biography, see Appendix.

ras, although war had not yet been declared. As soon as news reached Washington of Taylor's first fight Polk sent a message to Congress declaring that Mexico had invaded our territory and shed American blood on American soil. On May 13 Congress declared war.

Monterey and Buena Vista.—In September Taylor stormed the fortified city of Monterey, which was defended by a force much larger than his own. After four days of hard fighting the Mexicans surrendered on September 24. A few months later Taylor won the most brilliant victory of the war. Most of his troops had been sent away to join General Winfield Scott,* who was about to invade Mexico by way of Vera Cruz. Taylor had only five thousand men left, but at a place called Buena Vista he stationed them at the end of a narrow mountain pass, and waited for his enemy. The Mexicans, twenty thousand strong, attacked him on February 23, 1847. With his small force Taylor held his ground all day, and finally drove his adversary into retreat. This victory ended a most successful campaign.

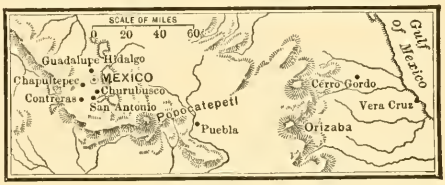
Conquest of New Mexico and California.—The settlement of the boundary of Texas was not the chief reason for war with Mexico. Many Americans were determined to have no other western boundary for the United States than the Pacific Ocean. Early in the war General Kearny was sent to conquer New Mexico and California, a thinly settled part of the Mexican republic. Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, was taken without a struggle, and New Mexico was declared a part of the United States. General Kearny at once pushed on into California.

The Americans living there had set up a government for themselves as soon as they heard of the war with Mexico. They called this the "Bear Flag Republic." The United States had placed warships off the coast ready to take advantage of any excuse for seizing California. It was thought that Great Britain and France both meant to seize that region if they could, so when the war with Mexico

* For biography, see Appendix.

began Commodore Stockton, commander of the Pacific squadron, demanded the surrender of Monterey, San Francisco, and other ports. All were given up without opposition.

Campaign of General Scott.—General Winfield Scott was at that time the commanding General of the United States army. He set out to take the city of Mexico. He landed, in March, 1847, at Vera Cruz, and laid siege to the city. The fort there was the strongest in Mexico, but Scott carried it and the city on March 27. Advancing toward the capital, he fought a battle at Cerro Gordo on April 18, and won a complete victory, taking three thousand prisoners. His own army numbered only about ten thousand men, but within a month he reached Puebla, and after several minor encounters he fought in August the battles of Contreras, Churubusco, and San Antonio, winning them all.



Scott's campaign

After a brief armistice Scott pushed forward, and on the 13th of September stormed and carried the fortress of Chapultepec, which guarded the city of Mexico. The Americans followed the fleeing Mexicans to the city gates, and fought them till dark. The next morning they forced their way into the city, and after two days of fighting were in complete possession. This ended the war.

The Treaty of Peace with Mexico.—A treaty of peace was made at Guadalupe Hidalgo on February 2, 1848. Mexico gave up New Mexico and California, the United States paying fifteen million dollars in return. The Rio Grande was accepted by Mexico as the boundary of Texas, which was in accordance with the Texan claim. The total cost of the Mexican War has been estimated at one hundred and sixty-six million dollars. But, alas! we must add to the money cost the loss of twenty-five thousand lives, mostly those of

young men. The gain was a vast territory, including California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, and parts of Wyoming and Colorado. California soon became the treasure house of the world for gold, and other sections of the territory have yielded fabulous sums in silver.

The Finding of Gold in California.—In 1848 a man named Sutter lived at Sacramento, where there were four houses included in Sutter's fort. Sutter was building a little mill on a stream, where one Marshall was to cut lumber for him. One morning in January Marshall saw some yellow particles in the sand of the stream, and gathered them up. Suspecting that they might be gold, he rode at once to Sutter's fort. There he and Sutter locked themselves in with a cyclopedia and a pair of scales, and presently decided that the little yellow grains were in fact gold.

Sutter never completed his mill. He had something more profitable to do. Presently tens of thousands of men from the States, from Europe, from China, and from the ends of the earth were flocking to California by way of Cape Horn, the Isthmus of Panama, and across the desert plains. Many died on every route, but the rest pushed on eagerly to the land of gold.

New States.—The States admitted to the Union during Polk's administration were Texas, December 29, 1845; Iowa, December 28, 1846; Wisconsin, May 29, 1848.

Summary.—1. The question of annexing Texas was an important issue in the election of 1844. The Democrats carried the day, electing James K. Polk to be President. Texas was annexed in 1845, and during the year was admitted to the Union as a State.

2. A dispute with Mexico concerning the boundary of Texas led to some fighting on the Rio Grande and to a declaration of war on May 13, 1846.

3. The war consisted of two great campaigns. General Taylor marched into northern Mexico and won the battles of Monterey and Buena Vista. General Scott landed at Vera Cruz and marched to the city of Mexico, defeating the Mexicans on his way at Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco and San Antonio. Arriving in front of the city of Mexico he stormed and carried the fortress of Chapultepec on

the 13th of September, and two days later carried the city itself, thus ending the war. In the meantime General Kearny had conquered New Mexico and Commodore Stockton had seized upon California.

4. By the treaty of peace (February 2, 1848,) Mexico gave up a vast territory, including California, New Mexico, Utah, Nevada, Arizona, and parts of Wyoming and Colorado.

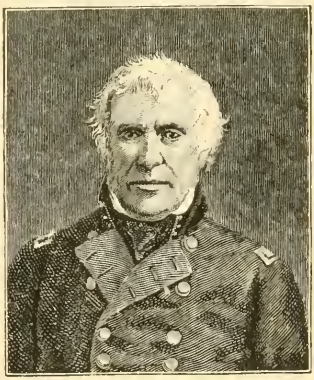
5. In 1848 gold was discovered in California, and gold seekers by tens of thousands flocked to that region from all the States and from many other parts of the world.

Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," I., 82-90. Garland's "Life of Grant," 83-86, 91-102. Rhodes's "History of the United States," I., 110-113.

CHAPTER XLII

THE COMPROMISE OF 1850, AND OTHER MATTERS

The Election of 1848.—In 1848 the Whigs took General Zachary Taylor for their candidate. He knew little of politics, and seemingly had no political opinions. But his glory was great on account of his victories in Mexico, and the Whigs took him as a candidate whom they could elect.



Zachary Taylor

General Lewis Cass, of Michigan, was the candidate of the Democrats. There was a third candidate, representing the Free Soil party, which had been formed out of the old Liberty party. A great many Democrats and some Whigs had joined this new party and nominated Martin Van Buren as their candidate. Van Buren drew heavily from the Democrats, and at the election Taylor was chosen, with Millard Fillmore for Vice President.

The Wilmot Proviso. — In the meantime the slavery question had come up in a new form to vex the old political parties. When it was proposed to purchase lands from Mexico, Congressman David Wilmot, a Pennsylvania country lawyer, serving as a Democratic Congressman, surprised the country by moving to insert in the appropriation bill an amendment providing that "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory." This amendment, which was called the Wilmot Proviso, passed the House but failed in the Senate. It had the effect, however, of stirring up angry discussion of the slavery question at a time when the leaders of both parties were doing their utmost to keep such discussion down.

A New Slavery Agitation.—As Mexico had abolished slavery before the war, the territory which we got from her came to us without that institution. The Southern statesmen insisted that as this territory had been paid for with the money of all the people, and fought for by troops from North and South alike, it should be freely open to settlement from both sections, and that slave holders moving into it should be permitted to carry their negroes with them, as they did their other property.

Behind this question of slavery there was another. The North and South were jealously struggling with each other for strength in the Senate. The two sections were equally balanced there, and it was seen that every new State which came in with slavery would add two Senators to the Southern strength, while, if slavery was excluded from the new Territories, all the new States would be free and the North would presently completely outvote the South in the Senate. The contest was a bitter one, and there was grave talk of a dissolution of the Union. The extreme anti-slavery men at the North, so far from being disturbed by this threat, were willing enough to have the Union dissolved if by that means they could get rid of slavery.

The California Case.—As we have already seen, California rapidly filled up with people after gold was discovered, and

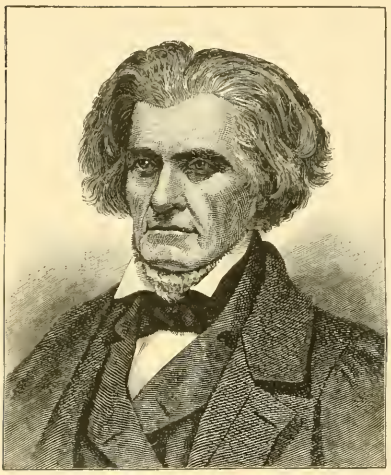
Emigrants on their way to California

its population was now more than great enough to make a State. General Taylor suggested to the Californians that they should adopt a Constitution at once and apply for admission to the Union. They did this, and put into their Constitution a clause forbidding slavery. There were Southern men and Northern men in California, but nobody there wanted negro slaves.

In 1849 California asked for admission as a free State. The Southern members of Congress would not consent to this unless it should be agreed at the same time that the rest of the new territory should be open to slavery. There were hot debates in Congress, and the spirit of disunion continued to grow at the South.

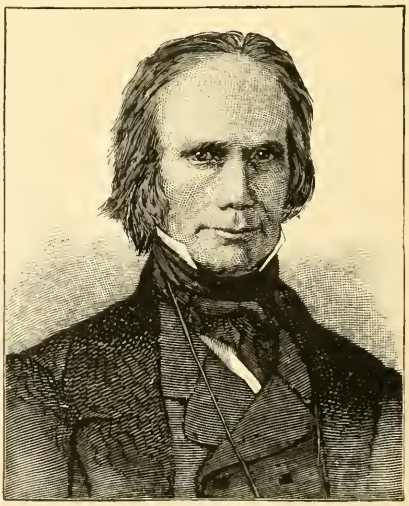
The Three Greatest Statesmen.—In the Congress of 1849-50, there sat together in the Senate for the last time, three of the greatest men this country has ever known—Clay, Webster, and Calhoun. They had been born within five years of one another, and they died within about two years of one another. Calhoun was a Democrat, Clay and Webster, Whigs. For a whole generation these three had dominated legislation and largely determined the country's policy.

Seeking a Compromise.—Clay, the great compromiser, had come to the capital, old and ill, hoping to be a



John C. Calhoun

quiet looker-on rather than the active leader that he had always been. But he was by instinct a peacemaker, and he loved the Union more than everything else. He had secured peace by the Missouri compromise in 1820; he had put an end to nullification by the compromise tariff of the early thirties; and now had come to him another opportunity, as he believed, to save his country from dissolution and ruin. In consultation with Webster and others he devised a plan and spoke in its behalf with such captivating eloquence that men came from far and near to listen to his winning words, and women kissed him when he had done. Calhoun was was too old and feeble to speak, but another Senator read for him what he wished to say in this crisis. Finally came Webster with his celebrated "Seventh of March" speech in favor of the compromise. The speech was one of the greatest that Webster had ever made—equal in eloquence to his celebrated reply to Hayne—but it bitterly disappointed his



Henry Clay

friends at the North, who had hoped that he would take ground in favor of the Free Soil movement without compromise.

Daniel Webster

The Compromise Measures.—Clay carried his point. Five bills were passed by Congress which it was fondly believed would settle the slavery question forever.

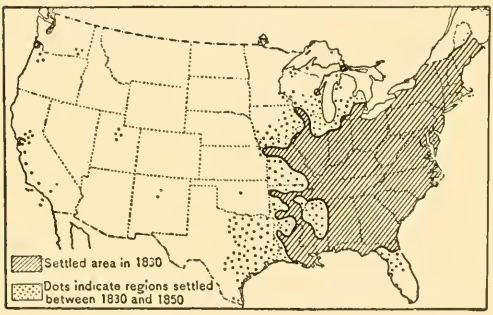
The first provided that California should come into the Union as a free State (map, p. 285). The second provided that the rest of the region acquired from Mexico should be divided into two Territories, called New Mexico and Utah, with no restriction as to slavery. In any States that might be made from these Territories, the question of slavery or no slavery was to be decided by the people there. The third bill provided for settling a boundary dispute between Texas and New Mexico. These three bills were originally introduced as one, called the Omnibus Bill.

The fourth of the compromise bills forbade the slave trade within the District of Columbia, but permitted the holding of slaves there.

The fifth bill was the Fugitive Slave Law. It provided that United States officers in all the States should arrest all runaway negroes, and return them to the persons who claimed them as their owners.

Effect of the Fugitive Slave Law.—This law had very little effect except to increase the anger of the people over the question which the compromise was intended to settle.

Many Northern States passed " personal liberty bills," which interfered with the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law, and to a large extent nullified it. In some cases mobs of citizens rescued runaway negroes who had been arrested under the law, and in spite of the law anti-slavery men in parts of the North organized a system by which negroes were aided in escaping to Canada. This was called the " Underground Railroad." In the midst of this excitement, in 1852, " Uncle Tom's Cabin," by Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe,* was published. It was written to excite sympathy for slaves and hostility to slavery. It was widely circulated and greatly increased the anti-slavery feeling in the North, and it still further angered the Southern people.

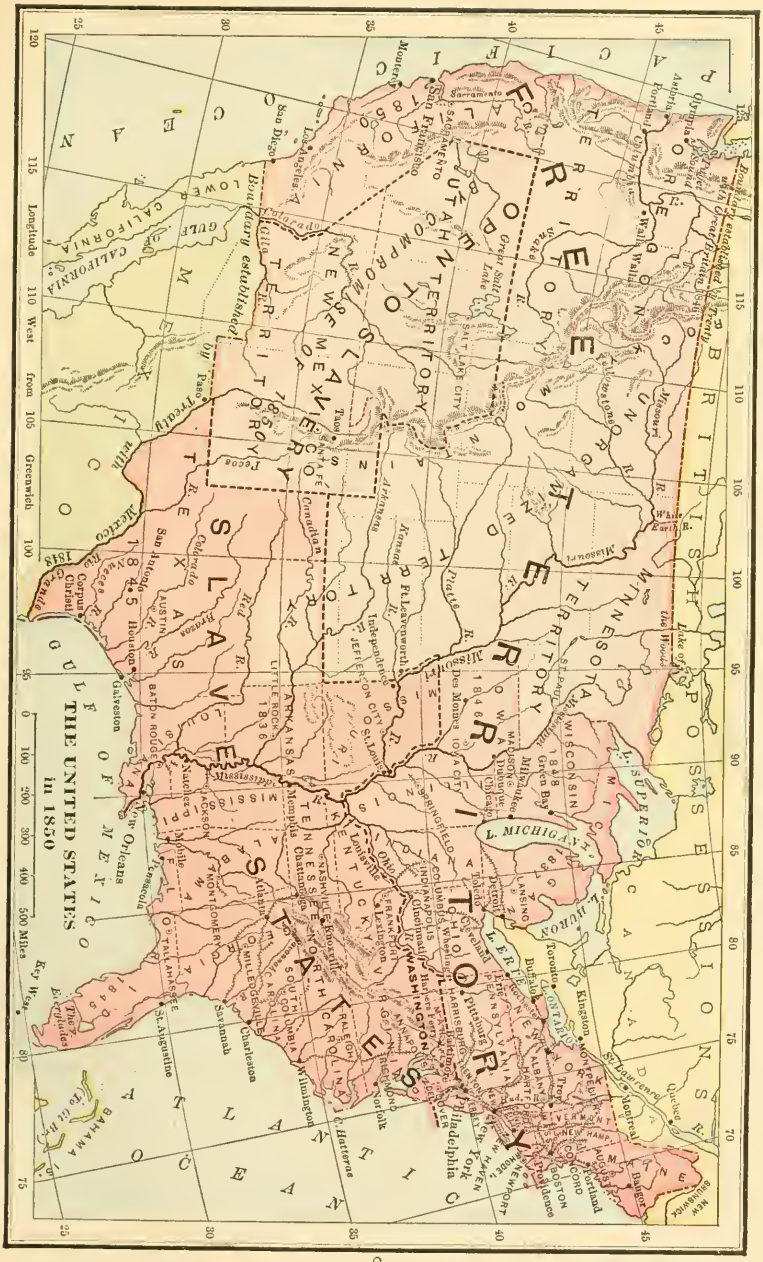


Settled area in 1850

Millard Fillmore

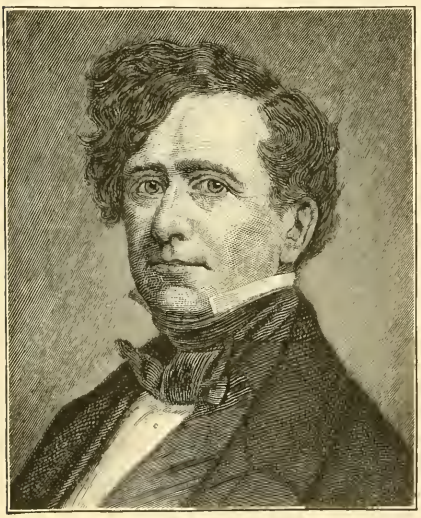
Death of Taylor.—The Census.—President Taylor died in July, 1850, and Millard Fillmore,* the Vice President, became President. California was admitted to the Union as a State, September 9, 1850, The census of that year gave the population of the

* For biography, see Appendix.


THE UNITED STATES
in 1850
FREE TERRITORY
SLAVE STATES
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
CANADA
L. MICHIGAN
L. SUPERIOR
L. HURON
L. ERIE
L. ONTARIO
Longitude 110 West from 105 Greenwich
0 100 200 300 400 500 Miles

country as 23,190,000, or almost exactly six times the population when the first census was made sixty years before. The number of States in the Union had increased from thirteen to thirty-one.

The Election of Franklin Pierce.—As the election of 1852 drew near, both the Whig and Democratic parties tried hard to keep the slavery question out of politics. Both treated it as already settled by the compromise. Franklin Pierce* was the candidate of the Democrats, and General Winfield Scott of the Whigs. The Whig party lost its anti-slavery members at the North and gained few votes in the South. Pierce was elected, with William R. King, of Alabama, for Vice President. Scott was the last Whig candidate ever named for the Presidency.



Franklin Pierce

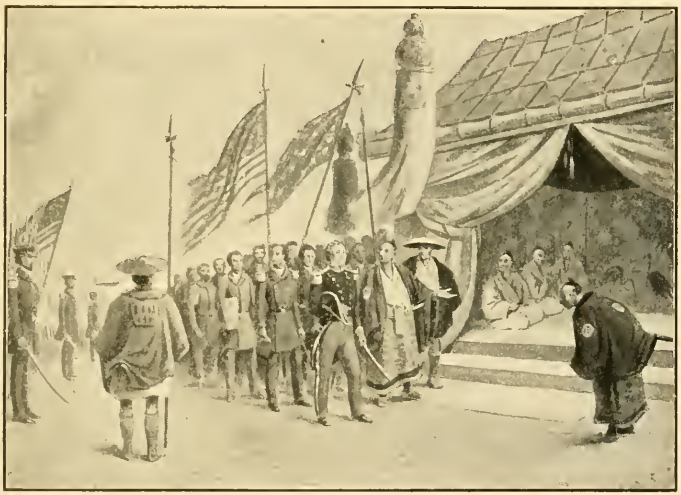
Cuba.—Having acquired so much new territory, the people became anxious to get Cuba also. Several expeditions were secretly organized in this country by a Cuban named Lopez for the invasion of that island. Lopez declared that the Cubans were ready to revolt against Spain and welcome an American government. All these expeditions failed, and in 1851 Lopez was caught by the Spanish and shot.

The Ostend Manifesto.—Pierre Soulé was sent by President Pierce as Minister to Madrid, and instructed to secure the cession of Cuba to the United States by Spain. Our Ministers to England and France met Soulé in conference

* For biography, see Appendix.

at Ostend, in Belgium. The three drew up an official report concerning Cuba, which was called the Ostend Manifesto. It recommended the purchase of the island, and suggested that if Spain would not sell, the United States might be justified in taking Cuba by force.

The Opening of Japan.—The settlement of California and Oregon made it desirable to have a line of steamers on the Pacific, and coaling stations were needed in Japan. At that time no Christian nation except the Dutch was allowed to



Perry in Japan

trade with Japan, and even the Dutch were not permitted to dwell in that country. In 1852 Commodore Matthew C. Perry, a brother of Oliver Hazard Perry, was sent with a fleet to Japan to "persuade" that nation to open her ports to American ships. Running his cannon mouths out of their portholes, Perry succeeded in "persuading" Japan to make a treaty permitting Americans to trade with two of the Japanese ports. This resulted presently in the complete opening of that "hermit country" to the ships of all nations.

The Gadsden Purchase.—In 1853 a new treaty was made

with Mexico to settle the boundary between that country and the United States. By this treaty the United States secured forty-five thousand square miles of land south of the Gila River, and paid ten million dollars for it. This is called the Gadsden Purchase from the name of the man who negotiated the treaty.

The Martin Koszta Case.—The United States had always contended that foreigners who became naturalized citizens were entitled to protection against all foreign powers including the countries of their own birth. A Hungarian exile named Martin Koszta had come to the United States, lived here two years, and formally declared his intention to become a citizen. He then went (1853) to Turkey on business and put himself under protection of an American Consul. The Austrians kidnaped him, claiming him as a subject of Austria. Captain Ingraham, of the United States sloop of war "St. Louis," demanded Koszta's release, and threatened to fire on the Austrian ship on which he was held. This brought the Austrians to terms and settled the question of the right of this country to protect its foreign-born citizens.

Walker, the Filibuster.—In 1853, General William Walker, of Tennessee, led a filibustering expedition into Lower California and tried to stir up a revolt there, but failed. He then gathered a little force of adventurers about him, and made many raids into Central America, stirring up revolutions wherever he went, until at last, in 1860, he was captured in Honduras, tried by court-martial, and shot.

Summary.—1. In 1848 the Whigs elected General Zachary Taylor President.

2. The Mexican cession immediately revived the dispute on the slavery question. Much excitement was provoked in Congress and elsewhere by the Wilmot proviso forbidding slavery in the ceded territory. The excitement was increased when, in 1849, California applied for admission to the Union as a free State. Disunion and war seemed imminent. This was prevented by Henry Clay's compromise of 1850.

3. So far from settling permanently the slavery question, as had been hoped, this compromise increased the discussion of the subject and the

danger to the Union. To this also the novel, "Uncle Tom's Cabin," largely added.

4. President Taylor died in the summer of 1850, and Millard Fillmore became President. He was succeeded by Franklin Pierce (Democrat) in 1853.

5. About this time a great desire arose in this country to annex Cuba. Several filibustering expeditions were taken to that island by a Cuban named Lopez, but they came to nothing. In the Ostend Manifesto something like a threat to annex Cuba by force was made.

6. In 1852 an American fleet under Commodore Perry was sent to Japan to open that country's ports to American ships. Japan had always excluded foreigners from her territory, but Perry secured the privilege desired.

7. In 1853 the Gadsden purchase was made, by which the United States bought another large territory from Mexico.

8. At about the same time our country asserted and maintained in the Martin Koszta case its right to protect naturalized citizens against the countries in which they were born, and Walker, the filibuster, began his career as a maker of revolutions in Spanish-American republics.

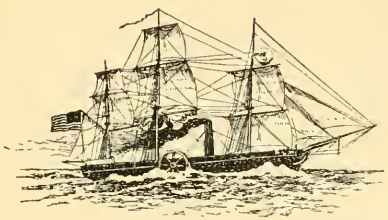
Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," I., 122-127, 144-148, 216-222.

CHAPTER XLIII

THE PROGRESS OF INVENTION

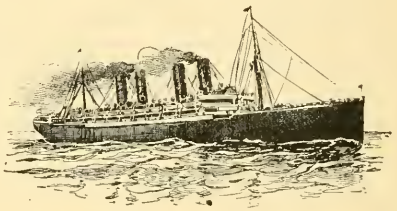
The Advance of Sixty Years.—The first World's Fair was held in London in 1851. It was followed, in 1853, by a similar fair in New York. This exhibition drew attention to the progress which the United States had made, especially in labor-saving machinery. From the beginning of civilization until near the end of the eighteenth century man had been content to make by hand whatever he needed; to go about in boats propelled by paddles, oars, and sails; and for land travel to use wagons drawn by horses or oxen. Then came steam to work a revolution, and with it came the impulse to devise machinery of every kind by way of saving labor and improving products.

Ocean Steam Navigation.—The greatest service of steam



"Savannah," first ocean steamship

has been in the steamboat, the railroad, and the ocean steamship. The steamboat and the railroad have already been treated in former chapters of this history. The ocean steamship was a natural outgrowth of the steamboat. At first it was thought that no steamship could ever be built which could carry coal enough to drive it across the ocean, and still leave room for freight. But as the steam engine was improved, it took less and less coal to produce the power needed, and in 1819 the ship "Savannah" was built in New York and crossed from Savannah to England in twenty-six days. This boat did not depend entirely on steam power. The paddle wheels could be unshipped and hoisted on board, and with favoring winds sails were used to economize coal. It was twenty years later before steam became the sole motive power of ocean steamers; but from its successful inauguration the development of the steamship has been rapid, and the ocean "greyhound" of to-day is one of the modern wonders of the world.



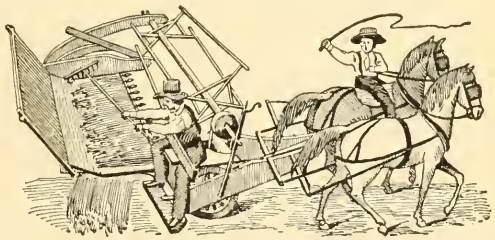
Modern steamship

Cotton.—We have already seen (p. 250) how Whitney's cotton gin made cotton abundant and cheap by enabling a man to do in a day two or three thousand times as much as he could have done before in removing the seeds from cotton. This enormously increased the supply of raw cotton, and drew attention to the need there was of equally good machinery with which to make it into cloth. The first step in that direction was taken when James Hargreaves, an Englishman, invented a machine for spinning

thread, which was called the spinning jenny. Arkwright came later with the spinning frame, and in 1779, Crompton perfected the spinning mule which still further cheapened the work of making yarns. The English tried to keep these inventions to themselves but after a while Samuel Slater, an English apprentice, came to this country, bringing the machines in his head, as it were. He had studied them carefully, measuring all their parts, and fixing the measurements in his memory. In 1790, Slater, with his own hands, constructed a cotton mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island.

Cotton Factories.—The power loom was invented in 1785, but not set up in England till 1806. This was a loom driven by steam or water power and it took the place of hand looms, doing many times as much work in a day. The machine was a profound secret in England, but Francis C. Lowell went to that country, learned all that he could about it, and returned in 1814. Then the power loom was invented over again from the information Lowell had brought back with him. He formed a company to make cotton goods at Waltham, Massachusetts, which built the first cotton "factory" set up anywhere in the world. There had been mills before, at some of which cotton was carded, at others spun, and at still others woven into cloth. But neither in England nor in America was there a "factory" where all these things were done under a single management.

Harvesters.—Early in the Christian era efforts were made to construct machines for reaping grain. But more than seventeen hundred years passed away before the modern reaper appeared. By 1835 three English machines had been made to work, but



Reaper, 1840

none of them worked well enough to come into general use. American inventors did better. Robert McCormick and Cyrus Hall McCormick, father and son, worked patiently at this problem for several years. They improved upon the ideas of many unsuccessful inventors, and in 1831 C. H. McCormick constructed a reaper which he patented three years later, but did not sell till 1840. His reapers were for several years made only by hand at a blacksmith's shop in Virginia. McCormick exhibited his machine at the World's Fair in London, in 1851. It took the gold medal. Another American inventor, Obed Hussey, exhibited a reaper, which was the only rival of McCormick's.

Goodyear's Rubber.—Another invention which has done great good in the world was that of vulcanized India rubber, invented by Charles Goodyear,* in 1839. Up to that time India rubber had been of very little use. It had been tried for many things, but it would not last in warm weather. Goodyear's invention overcame this difficulty, and made possible rubber overshoes, water-proof garments, fire hose, rubber belting for machinery, and many other articles now in daily use. Vulcanite or hard rubber was a later and even more remarkable invention.

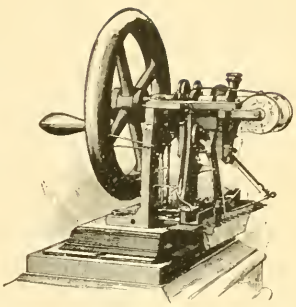
The Electric Telegraph.—Having secured the means of easy and rapid travel by railroad, the steamboat, and the steamship, and having thus extended commerce, man's next need was to devise a means of quick communication over long distances. Samuel Finley Breese Morse,* already a well-known artist, succeeded, after years of struggle, in introducing the American system of electric telegraph. There were twelve years of doubt and delay. At last Congress appropriated thirty thousand dollars, with which Morse built a telegraph line from Washington to Baltimore. The first message sent over it con-

First telegraph instrument

* For biography, see Appendix.

sisted of the words, "What hath God wrought?"

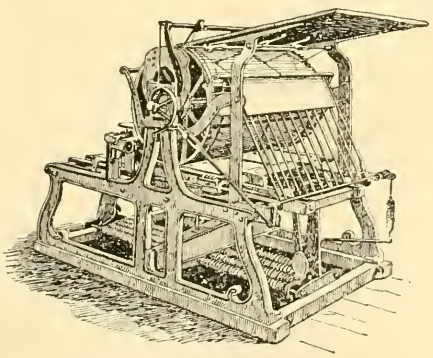
The introduction of the telegraph into general use was very slow; but success came to Morse at last, and when it came it was complete. Many countries gave him decorations in gold and diamonds. He died at the age of eighty-one years, but before his death he had seen the telegraph in operation all over the world.



Howe's first sewing machine

Elias Howe and the Sewing Machine.—Elias Howe,* a poor working machinist, invented the sewing machine in 1847. His one important invention was that of putting the eye of the needle in its point. This alone made sewing machines possible, and gave to mankind cheaper and more abundant clothing than had ever been known before.

Hoe's Invention.—The next inventor to make great improvements was Richard M. Hoe. He made improvements in the cylinder press, and in 1846 brought out the famous "Lightning Press."



Early cylinder press

The modern Hoe sextuple press prints paper sixty-three inches wide at the rate of over twenty-five miles an hour. The paper comes out at the other end of the press printed on both sides, cut into newspaper sheets, folded, and pasted, ready for delivery.

Anæsthetics.—The discovery of the use of anæsthetics, that is to say substances which render a human being insen-

* For biography, see Appendix.

sible to pain for a time, is regarded, so far as the science of medicine is concerned, as the crowning glory of the first half of the nineteenth century. This discovery cannot be credited to any one person. Horace Wells, a dentist, is said to have used nitrous oxide gas in extracting teeth as early as 1844. Dr. W. T. G. Morton is credited with having administered ether in the Massachusetts General Hospital in 1847, during a surgical operation. Sir J. Y. Simpson, an Englishman, first announced chloroform as an anæsthetic. The discovery of this is also ascribed to Dr. Jackson, of Sag Harbor, New York, and to others.

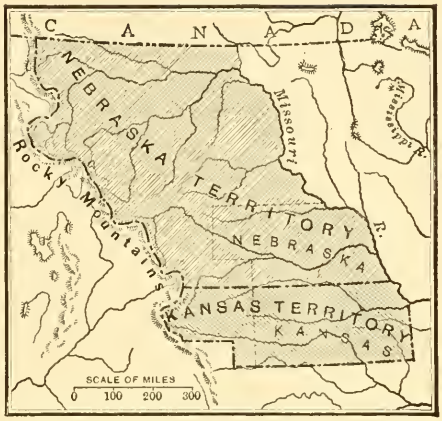
Summary.—1. The World's Fair at New York in 1853 called attention to the progress of invention during the sixty-four years since Washington was elected President. The most important of these inventions were the steam railroads, boats and ships, the cotton gin, the spinning jenny, the power loom, reaping machines, vulcanized rubber, the electric telegraph, the sewing machine, the modern printing press, and the use of anæsthetics.

Collateral Reading.—Parton's "Book of Biography," 159-161, 215-220.

CHAPTER XLIV

THE KANSAS-NEBRASKA DEBATE; THE KNOW-NOTHING PARTY; THE DRED SCOTT CASE; THE PANIC OF 1857; THE MORMONS

The Kansas-Nebraska Bill.—Congress passed a bill in 1854 to organize the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska. Those Territories were a part of the Louisiana Purchase. As they lay north of the southern line of Missouri, slavery was forbidden in them by the Missouri Compromise. But many of the people in the South claimed that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional, while many other both North and South held that it had been practically repealed by the Compromise of 1850 which permitted slavery in territory acquired from Mexico, lying partly north of that line; this made all California free, though part of it lay south.



Kansas and Nebraska Territories

Stephen A. Douglas, a Democratic Senator from Illinois, who hoped to become President, was the leading advocate of this view. He held that by the Compromise of 1850 Congress had established a new principle, giving up its right to make laws concerning slavery in the Territories, and leaving that question to be decided by the people of each Territory for themselves. It was he who introduced the bill to organize Kansas and Nebraska, and in order to make matters sure he put into it a provision which declared the Missouri Compromise inoperative.

The Kansas Struggle.—Under this bill, men owning slaves were free to take their negro property with them, when settling in either of the two Territories. And the legislature of either Territory could decide whether slavery should be permitted there or not.

As Nebraska lay far to the north, with Iowa alongside, nobody expected many slave holders to settle in that Territory, but Kansas was debatable ground, and the debate took the form of a rush of settlers from north and south, each side hurrying as many men as possible into that region in order to control it. Slave holders from Missouri and Arkansas, and from other States, flocked into the Territory at once, and to offset them "emigrant aid societies" were formed in New England and New York, where they raised money with which to pay the expenses of free-state emigrants, and to arm them with guns. Some of these turned back, but many of them took up lands in Kansas.

In Missouri, secret societies called "blue lodges" were

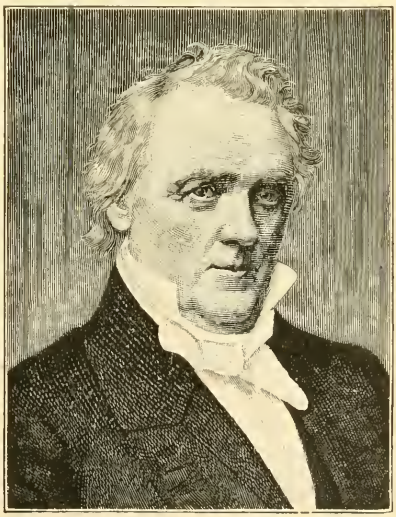
organized, and their members were pledged to vote at the first Kansas election. Many of these did not intend to settle there but went into the region just in time for the first election. At that election the free-state men generally refused to vote on the ground that the election was not fair. The pro-slavery men elected a legislature to their liking and it adopted a slave code. During the next year the free-state men organized a state government for themselves, and asked admission to the Union. The pro-slavery men fell upon this government and overthrew it. The struggle for supremacy became a civil war. There was much fighting, great violence, and some bloodshed.

The Sumner-Brooks Affair.—During the hot debate concerning Kansas, Senator Sumner, of Massachusetts, made an eloquent and bitter speech in the Senate on "The Crime Against Kansas." In the course of it he denounced and ridiculed Mr. Butler, of South Carolina. Thereupon, Congressman Preston S. Brooks, a nephew of Butler's, went into the Senate chamber when the Senate was not in session, and assaulted Sumner with a cane, leaving him prostrate and insensible. In the excited state of public feeling at that time the whole country fell into a frenzy over this affair, the North forgetting the severity of Sumner's words, and the South forgetting the character of Brooks's attack. None of the more important events of that time did more than this personal encounter to set the nation in an uproar.

The Know-Nothing Party.—During all its history the Whig party had enjoyed only four years of power in the nation. The party's career was now drawing to an end. In 1853, a new party was started which was called the Native American party, or the Know-Nothing party. It held that no foreign-born citizen and no Roman Catholic should be elected to office. A great immigration of foreigners, mainly Roman Catholics, had occurred between 1840 and 1850, and this had aroused the fears of many. The new party took the form of a secret society, and surrounded itself with great mystery. The members of this party made it a rule

to answer "I know nothing" to every question that might be asked. But apart from its antagonism to Catholics and foreign-born citizens, the party had no particular views or principles. Before the next presidential election came, the tide had run out as swiftly as it had come in, and Fillmore and Donelson, the Know-Nothing candidates, received only eight electoral votes. The career of that party had ended, but it had served as one of the forces which were pulling the old parties to pieces.

The Republican Party.—In the year after Know-Nothingism began, the Kansas-Nebraska bill was adopted, and it quickly aroused intense feeling. In the autumn of that year a new party came into being, and carried very nearly a majority of the Congressmen elected. It bore at first the awkward name of "Anti-Nebraska" but later came to be called the Republican party. Its chief doctrine was that no slave State should be formed out of any of the Territories. Many of the Know-Nothing leaders, many old Whigs, many Northern Democrats, and most of the Liberty party men became Republicans. This new party organized to oppose slavery in the Territories was a grave source of alarm to the South.



James Buchanan

The Election of 1856.—In 1856 the Democrats nominated and elected James Buchanan* for President, and John C. Breckinridge for Vice President. Frémont and Dayton were the Republican candidates, and the fact that eleven States gave their

* For biography, see Appendix.

electoral vote to Frémont, a declared opponent of slavery, greatly startled the South.

The Dred Scott Case.—Many years before a negro slave named Dred Scott had been taken by his master, an army surgeon, from the slave State of Missouri to a military post in the free State, Illinois. Under the law his master's act in taking him into that State made him a free man. But Scott was later taken back to Missouri, and there sold with his wife and two children. His new master having struck him, Scott brought a suit for assault against him. Under Missouri law, a slave had no right to sue, but it was contended for Scott that he had been set free by being taken to Illinois, and could not be again enslaved.

This question was carried at last to the Supreme Court of the United States, and in 1857 it was decided against Scott on the ground that no negro of slave ancestry, whether he be a slave or not, had a citizen's right in the Courts of the United States. The judges, at the same time, stated that slaves were property; that it was the duty of Congress to protect property, and, therefore, that Congress had no right to forbid slavery in the Territories. This was in effect a decision that the Missouri Compromise had never been valid in law. The decision still further excited both the North and the South, and helped onward that tendency toward disunion and war which was already well-nigh irresistible.

The Panic of 1857.—In 1856, and the early part of 1857, speculation ran wild, especially in the new States where the banking laws were loose, and where the bank notes used for money were often of doubtful value. Business was everywhere disturbed, prices went up and down, and presently in the autumn of 1857, there came a great panic. Most of the paper money in use became worthless because the banks that had issued it had failed. Everybody was in a fright, and for three years the business of the country was unsettled. As the people always hold the political party in power responsible for hard times, this condition of

things helped to weaken the Democrats, and strengthen the Republicans for the election of 1860.

The Mormons.—In 1830, a man named Joseph Smith founded the Mormon Church, which afterward came to be a serious source of trouble to the United States. Smith professed to have received *The Book of Mormon* from an angel, and on its teachings, and divine revelations which he professed to have received from time to time, he built his sect. After several removals the Mormons were driven out of Illinois because they set themselves above the law and practiced polygamy. They went to Utah, in 1847, and settled there, building Salt Lake City for their capital, and establishing a despotic government of their own. In President Fillmore's time their leader was Brigham Young, and Fillmore appointed him governor of Utah. President Buchanan removed him in 1857, and was obliged to send troops to Utah, to quell the Mormon rebellion which arose in consequence. Utah soon became populous enough to form a State, but it was kept out of the Union because of Mormon polygamy until 1896, although polygamy was given up in 1890.

Summary.—1. In 1854 and the years following a great and angry contest arose over the question of slavery in Kansas, and a civil war broke out in that Territory. The people of the entire country were greatly excited, and the matter went far to hurry on a final crisis over slavery.

2. The Know-Nothing party was organized in 1853, as a secret society whose purpose was to keep all Roman Catholics and all foreign-born citizens out of office. It soon gave way before the more serious purposes of the people with regard to slavery.

3. Those who opposed slavery were determined to prevent its extension into any of the Territories. To that end they united in a new Republican party. This party was defeated in the Presidential election of 1856, and the Democratic candidate, Buchanan, was elected.

4. The slavery agitation was greatly increased in 1857 by the decision of the Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case, that no negro whose ancestors were slaves could have the rights of a citizen before the United States Court.

5. In 1857 wild speculation resulted in a great panic, followed by hard times for two years afterwards. In their poverty and distress many of

the people blamed the Democrats, as the party in power, for these misfortunes, and thus the opposition to that party was strengthened.

6. It was during the period covered by this chapter (1857) that the Mormons in Utah began to give trouble.

Collateral Readings.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," I., 428-435, 483-491. Vol. II., 50-55, 251-257.

CHAPTER XLV

THE IRRESISTIBLE TENDENCY TO WAR

John Brown's Raid.—John Brown, a farmer in the Adirondacks, in northern New York, who was fanatically devoted to the cause of the negro, sent four of his sons to Kansas among the first settlers, and in 1856 he followed with his other sons, and became a leader of the free-state men. He was called "Ossawatomie" Brown, from the name of the town in which he lived.

Preparing arms for the slaves

In 1859, Brown went with his sons and others to Virginia, to set in motion a scheme he had long planned for putting an end to slavery. His plan was to liberate and arm the slaves and thus frighten the South into giving up slavery. One night in October of that year, with a little band of eighteen men, five of them negroes, Brown seized the United States Arsenal at Harpers Ferry. Colonel Robert E. Lee, of the regular army, was sent with government troops to suppress the insurrection. He battered his way into the engine house of the Arsenal, where

Brown and his followers were barricaded. Brown was arrested, convicted of treason and murder and hanged.

The State Sovereignty Idea General at First.—In the early days of the Republic, the idea was very generally held that each of the States was sovereign, and that the central government was merely their agent for the performance of certain duties which they had delegated to it. This doctrine was asserted from time to time in different States, as occasion arose. The Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions of 1798, asserted the right of a State to declare an act of Congress unconstitutional and void. Many persons in New England talked of taking their States out of the Union when the Embargo of 1807 destroyed the commerce by which they lived. Near the end of the War of 1812, the New England States held a convention at Hartford, to express their dissatisfaction with the course of the general government and it was believed at the time that they meant to withdraw from the Union.

In time, the Northern States came to have interests in common, and a strong national feeling grew up among them, while the South held firmly to the doctrine of State sovereignty. The great statesman, John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, was the chief advocate of that doctrine. He maintained that a State might at will nullify an act of Congress within its own borders, and South Carolina took this step in regard to the tariff acts of 1828 and 1832, as related in a former chapter.

The Sections Arrayed Against Each Other.—All this while the question of slavery tended to solidify the States of the North on the one hand, and those of the South on the other, each section standing for those policies of government which it desired enforced. As we have seen, the question of slavery in the Territories was quieted for a time by the Missouri Compromise in 1820, and again by the Compromise of 1850. Then came the Kansas-Nebraska Act, and the fierce controversy which resulted from it. This brought the two sections still more strongly into antagonism to each other. The

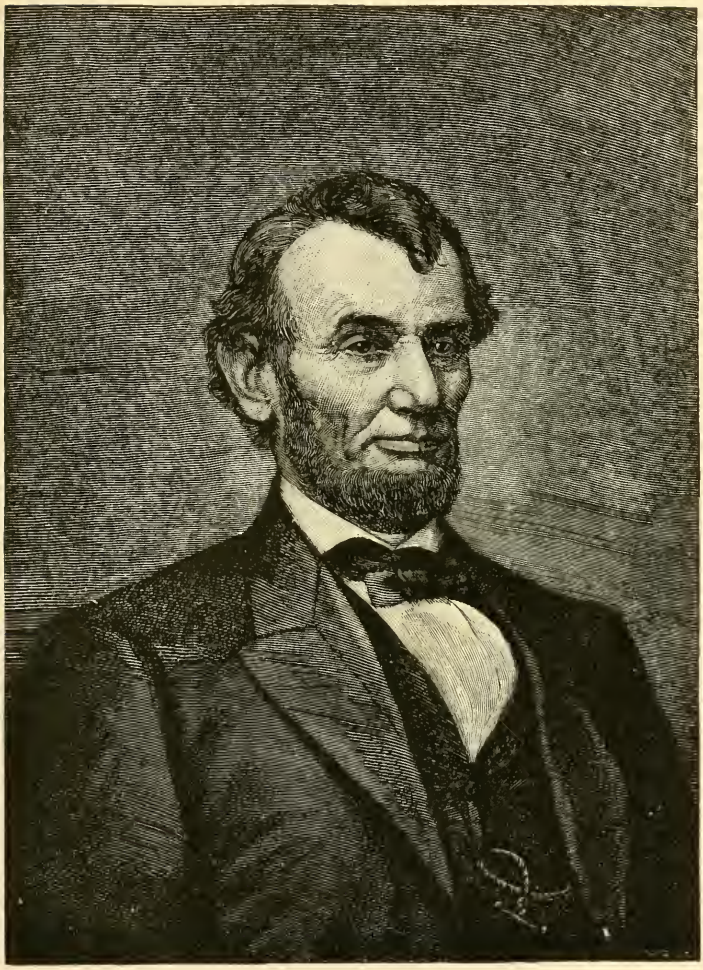
resistance of the Northern people to the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law, Brooks's assault upon Sumner, the decision of the Dred Scott case, John Brown's raid, and many minor incidents tended to increase the feeling of hostility.

The Election of 1860.—In 1860, the Democratic Convention could not agree upon a platform or a candidate. The South was unwilling to accept Douglas and his doctrine of popular sovereignty unless he would consent to a declaration that it was the duty of the Federal government to protect slavery in the Territories. The Northern Democrats, led by Douglas, refused to consent to this, and the party split in two. One part of it nominated Stephen A. Douglas for President, and Herschel V. Johnson for Vice President. The other party nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, and Joseph Lane, of Oregon.

The opposition to the Republican party was still further divided by the fact that many old Whigs and Know-Nothings, in company with many persons who felt that to save the Union was the only duty of patriotic men, at that time, formed themselves into the Constitutional Union Party, and nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts. It was certain that the Republicans could not secure a majority of the people's votes in support of any candidate they might nominate; but it was equally certain that with three candidates in the field against them, they were likely to carry a majority of the electoral votes, and elect their candidates. They nominated Abraham Lincoln,* of Illinois, for President, and Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine, for Vice President.

Seward and Chase had been prominent candidates but neither of them could command votes enough in the Convention to nominate him. Lincoln had won prominence in the country two years before by means of a series of great debates between himself and Douglas, on the question of slavery in the Territories. He had also the advantage of being one of what he called "the plain people."

* For biography, see Appendix.



A. Lincoln.

What the Four Candidates Stood For.—The Republican party, in its platform, declared itself in favor of forever excluding slavery from all the Territories which had not yet

been made into States. At the same time it declared that it had no purpose to interfere with slavery in the States where it already existed by law. The Douglas Democrats declared themselves in favor of the popular sovereignty doctrine, and the Compromise of 1850, that is to say, they proposed to leave each new Territory to decide for itself whether it would have slavery or not. The Breckinridge Democrats insisted that the owners of slave property had the same rights in the Territories that were possessed by the owners of any other kind of property, and that it was the duty of Congress to protect them in their rights of property in slaves in all the Territories. The supporters of Bell and Everett declared themselves in favor of "the Constitution, the Union, and the Enforcement of the Laws."

In the election the Republicans carried all the Northern States except New Jersey, and Lincoln was elected by 180 out of 303 electoral votes.

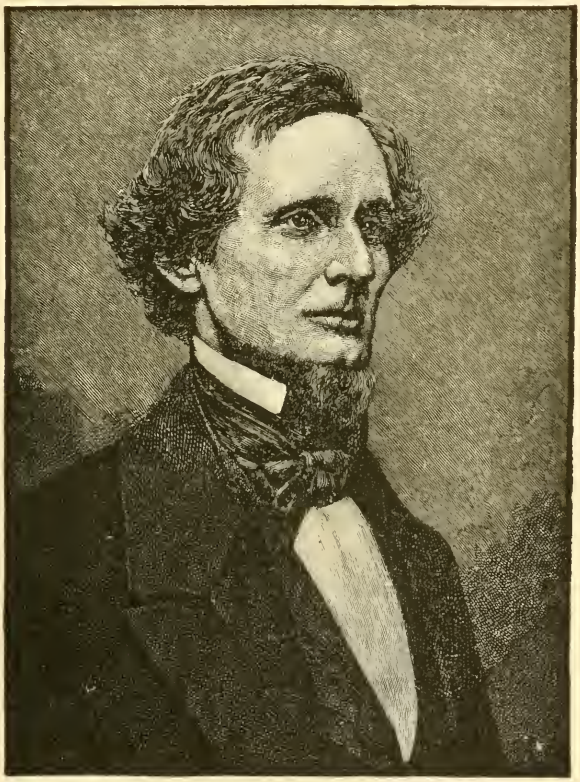
The Secession of South Carolina.—Almost all the Southern people believed firmly that any State had the right to withdraw from the Union when it pleased . A part of the Southern people regarded the election of Mr. Lincoln as a sufficient reason for exercising that right. They held that Mr. Lincoln's party was purely sectional, that it existed only in the Northern States, and that his election was in fact an attempt of the North to rule the South without its consent.

There was, therefore, a strong party in the South which favored the withdrawal of the slave States from the Union. South Carolina took the lead in this movement. That State called a Constitutional Convention together, and on the 20th of December, 1860, an ordinance was passed, declaring that South Carolina was no longer a State in the Union, but had resumed its independence.

Other Cotton States Secede.—In January, 1861, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, and Louisiana held Conventions and adopted ordinances of Secession. In February, Texas did the same. The rest of the Southern States, led by Virginia, hesitated. The people of Virginia, indeed,

voted overwhelmingly against secession, believing it to be bad politics, and wholly unnecessary.

Formation of the Confederate States.—Delegates from the six States which had seceded during December and



Jefferson Davis

January, met on February 4, at Montgomery, Alabama, and organized themselves into a new republic called the "Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis,* of Mississippi, was chosen President, and Alexander H.

* For biography, see Appendix.

Stephens,* of Georgia, Vice President. Texas joined this Confederacy March 2.

The seceding States seized upon the forts, arsenals and other property of the United States within their borders. The only Southern forts remaining in the possession of the United States were Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor, Fort Pickens, near Pensacola, Florida, the forts around Key West, and Fort Monroe, in Virginia—a State which had not yet seceded.

Feeling in the North.—At first the North could not believe that all this was to be taken seriously. It was thought that the matter would soon be settled in some way, and some prominent Northern men advised that the seceding States should be permitted to "go in peace." In his message to Congress in December, President Buchanan denied the right of any State to secede, but he also denied the right of the government to force any State to remain in the Union.

Vain efforts were made to bring about a compromise. John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, proposed to amend the Constitution, restore the Missouri Compromise line, and extend it to the Pacific Ocean, allowing slavery in all Territories south of it, and prohibiting slavery in all Territories north. This came to nothing.

The Peace Convention.—On February 4th, a peace Convention met in Washington at the suggestion of Virginia. It sat with closed doors and considered many suggestions, but nothing was accomplished.

New States and the Census.—Three States came into the Union during Buchanan's administration — Minnesota, May 11, 1858; Oregon, February 14, 1859; and Kansas, January 29, 1861. By the census of 1860 the population of the Union was 31,440,000. In seventy years the nation had added twenty-one new States to the original thirteen, and had multiplied its population almost exactly by eight. The region between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi had

* For biography, see Appendix.

been peopled, and eight of the twenty-one new States lay wholly west of the great river. The new States and Territories presently to become States, had a trifle more than one-half the entire population of the country, which now extended from sea to sea, and from the St. Lawrence and the great lakes to the Gulf of Mexico and the Rio Grande.

Summary.—1. John Brown went to Virginia in October, 1859, for the purpose of arming the negroes there and scaring the South into giving up slavery. He took possession of the United States Arsenal at Harpers Ferry, was captured, convicted of treason, and hanged.

2. The idea that each State was sovereign in itself was generally held at the beginning of our history. It was generally given up at the North as time went on, but the South still clung to it.

3. In the election of 1860 the Republicans were united, while their opponents were divided into three parties with three candidates. Abraham Lincoln was the Republican candidate. He carried the electoral vote of all the Northern States but one, and was elected.

4. South Carolina seceded almost immediately, and the six other cotton States followed in January, February, and March. They formed themselves into a new Republic, under the name of the Confederate States of America, and seized upon most of the forts, arsenals, etc., within their borders.

5. In Congress, and in a peace convention at Washington, earnest efforts were made to find a way out by compromise. All these efforts failed.

Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," II., 391-401, 404-405; Vol. III., 115-121, 195-201. Pollard's "The Lost Cause," 90-91, 346-355.

125
120
115
110
105
100
50
45
40
35
30
25
Longitude
VANCOUVER I.
C. Flattery
Port Townsend
Seattle
Ft. Colville
WASHINGTON TERR.
OLYMPIA
Columbia R.
Portland
Oregon City
SALEM
OREGON
1859
Lewiston
Ft. Benton
Missouri R.
Ft. Williams
DAKOTA
Yellowstone R.
Snake R.
Big Horn R.
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
TERRITORY
BLACK HILLS
Ft. Pierre
Missouri R.
Wounded Knee
Ft. Hall
Lava Beds
C. Mendocino
NEVADA TERR.
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
GREAT SALT LAKE CITY
UTAH TERR.
NEBRASKA TERRITOR
Platte R.
Marysville
CARSON CITY
Stockton
SACRAMENTO
San Francisco
San Jose
CALIFORNIA
COLORADO TERRITORY
DENVER
Pueblo
KANSAS
1861
Sierra Nevada
Los Angeles
San Diego
Colorado R.
Albuquerque
SANTA FÉ
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
Canadian R.
Gila R.
Tucson
El Paso
Fort Worth
SECE
TEX
AUSTIN
San Antonio de Bexar
Rio Grande
Corpus Christi
LOWER CALIFORNIA
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
MEXICO

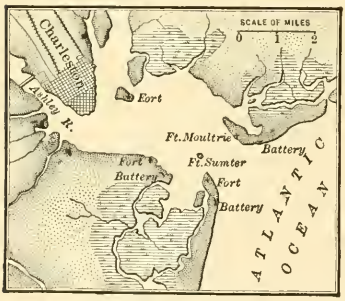
THE UNITED STATES
in 1861
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
from Greenwich
90
85
80
75
70
65
50
40
35
30
25
James Bay
Hudson Bay
CANADA
LAKE SUPERIOR
L. MICHIGAN
L. HURON
L. ERIE
L. ONTARIO
St. Lawrence R.
MAINE
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
RHODE I.
CONNECTICUT
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
PENNSYLVANIA
OHIO
INDIANA
ILLINOIS
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
MINNESOTA
IOWA
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
BAHAMA ISLANDS
Montpelier
Augusta
Portland
Concord
Boston
Providence
Albany
Hartford
New Haven
New York
Brooklyn
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Harrisburg
Pittsburg
Baltimore
Washington
Alexandria
Richmond
Norfolk
Petersburg
Lynchburg
Charleston
Wheeling
Zanesville
Columbus
Cincinnati
Dayton
Indianapolis
Springfield
Terre Haute
Evansville
Louisville
Frankfort
Lexington
Cleveland
Toledo
Detroit
Erie
Buffalo
Rochester
Newark
Trenton
Harpers Ferry
Chicago
Milwaukee
Madison
Lacrosse
Dubuque
Davenport
Ft. Wayne
Lansing
Grand Rapids
Kalamazoo
St. Paul
Burlington
Peoria
Bloomington
Quincy
Springfield
Kansas City
St. Louis
Jefferson City
Owensboro
Paducah
Nashville
Knoxville
Greensboro
Raleigh
Hatteras Inlet
C. Hatteras
Charlotte
Wilmington
Georgetown
Charleston
Port Royal
Savannah
Jacksonville
Tampa
Key West
Florida Strait
Nassau
Ft. Pillow
Memphis
Chattanooga
Dalton
Rome
Atlanta
Augusta
Macon
Millegeville
Columbus
Aberdeen
Tuscaloosa
Vicksburg
Jackson
Montgomery
Tallahassee
Pensacola
Mobile
Ft. Pickens
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Ft. St. Philip
Ft. Jackson
Galveston
Van Buren
Little Rock
Helena
Tahlequah
Alexandria
Pleasant Hill
Port Hudson
Natchez
Greenville
Jackson
Clarksville
Chattanooga
Murfreesboro
Lynchburg
Petersburg
Fredericksburg
Alexandria
Harpers Ferry
Wheeling
Zanesville
Cincinnati
Columbus
Dayton
Indianapolis
Terre Haute
Springfield
Evansville
Louisville
Frankfort
Lexington
Owensboro
Paducah
Cairo
Nashville
Knoxville
Greensboro
Raleigh
Charlotte
Wilmington
Georgetown
Charleston
Port Royal
Savannah
Jacksonville
Tampa
Key West
Florida Strait
Nassau
Bahama Islands
Gulf of Mexico
Atlantic Ocean

THE CIVIL WAR

CHAPTER XLVI

FROM THE FALL OF SUMTER TO McCLELLAN'S APPOINTMENT

Fort Sumter. — Major Anderson, of the United States army, with about one hundred men, had held Fort Moultrie, in Charleston Harbor. As the fort could not be defended on the land side he had removed his garrison to Fort Sumter, which stood on an artificial island in the Harbor. The fort could not be properly defended without reënforcements of men and ammunition. Buchanan hesitated to send these lest their arrival should bring on a collision. But when Major Anderson reported that batteries were building which threatened the fort, the President forwarded reënforcements in an unarmed vessel called the "Star of the West." When the ship tried to enter Charleston Harbor she was fired upon and forced to turn back.

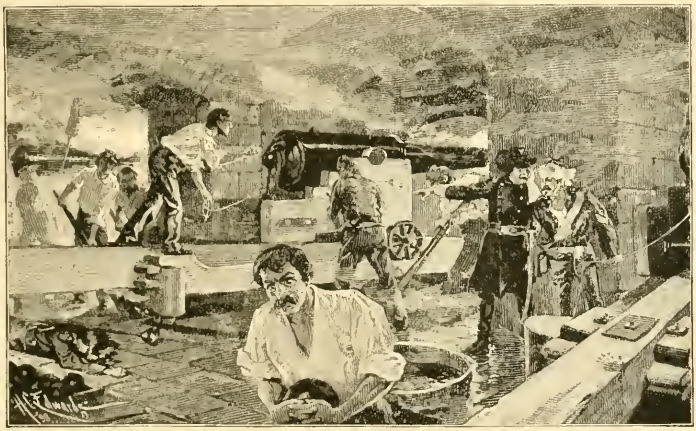


Charleston Harbor

The Fall of Sumter.—Lincoln came into office on the 4th of March, 1861. He took several weeks in which to decide what was to be done about Fort Sumter. Finally he made up his mind to send a small fleet to Charleston with provisions and soldiers on board. He notified the Governor of South Carolina that the fleet would supply the fort with provisions only, and would land no troops or ammunition unless an attack was made. The Confederates accepted

this movement as a challenge and on the 12th of April, 1861, their batteries opened on Sumter. After a heavy bombardment, the barracks in the fort took fire, and it became evident that Major Anderson could hold the place no longer. He surrendered on the 13th, and after firing fifty guns in honor of the flag, he, with his men, retired to the fleet, and sailed away on the 14th.

Effects of the Fall of Sumter.—The news of all this created tremendous excitement both North and South. In



Interior of Fort Sumter

the North, party differences were forgotten. People who had disagreed on the slavery question were agreed in the feeling that the Union must be preserved at all hazards. In the South, patriotic feeling took an opposite direction. Southern men of all parties felt themselves bound to fight for their States, rather than for the general government. After the first cannon boomed at Sumter, the two sections of the country were arrayed against each other, and men on both sides sprang to arms. On the day after the fall of Sumter Lincoln issued a proclamation calling "forth the militia of the several States to the aggregate number of seventy-five thousand."

Until that time Virginia had held out stoutly against secession. Her people firmly believed in the right of a State to secede, but they held with equal firmness that there was at that time no proper occasion for the exercise of that right, and so long as Virginia maintained this attitude, the other border States held aloof from the movement. But Mr. Lincoln's call for militia included a demand upon Virginia for her quota. This compelled her to make a hard choice. She must either secede, which she did not wish to do, or she must furnish troops with which to help coerce the seceding States, which she did not believe the general government had a right to do. In these circumstances Virginia seceded, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Arkansas followed her. Soon afterwards Richmond, Virginia, was made the Confederate capital. The first bloodshed of the war occurred in Baltimore, on the 19th of April, in a street fight between a mob and a Massachusetts regiment on its way to Washington.

Advantages of the North.—The North had the advantage of a larger population, greater wealth, more abundant food supplies and a government with all its machinery in perfect operation. It had machine shops, also, and multitudes of skilled mechanics capable of producing whatever might be needed in that direction. It had great factories in which clothing, shoes, wagons, arms, ammunition and everything else necessary to war could be made abundantly, while the South had none of these. The North had ships, also, and shipyards in which to build more. The government at Washington was able to shut up all the Southern ports with a blockading squadron almost from the beginning. This prevented the South from selling her cotton abroad, and it prevented her from buying in other countries the arms, ammunition, clothing, medicines, and machinery which she needed for war.

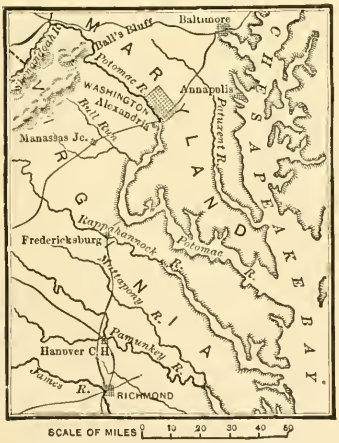
Advantages of the South.—On the other hand, the people of the Southern States were more military in their habits than those of the North, and more accustomed to outdoor life and to the use of firearms. The long and rapid marches

which the Southern soldiers sometimes made, and their endurance of hardship, were wonderful. The South had also the advantage of fighting on the defensive. Her armies moved upon shorter inside lines and fought mostly in regions where the people were on their side.

The Situation in 1861.—The Union armies in the summer of 1861 numbered all told about one hundred and eighty thousand men, while the South had in all about one hundred and fifty thousand. On both sides the men were fresh from civil life, untrained, undisciplined, and poorly organized. The two armies were scattered over long lines, stretching from Missouri on the west, through Kentucky and Tennessee to Virginia on the east, and southward along the coast.

Geo. B. McClellan

Early in that summer General George B. McClellan fought and won several small engagements in western Virginia, driving the Confederates from the mountains there. The Union sentiment was strong in that part of the State, and, as we shall see (p. 353), West Virginia was later separated from Virginia and admitted to the Union. At the same time there was a struggle going on for possession of Missouri, a State which was divided in sympathy between the North and the South. But the first great battle ground of the war was in Virginia, in the region between Washington and Richmond.



First Battle of Bull Run

The Battle of Bull Run, or Manassas.—Early in the summer of 1861 General Beauregard, with about eighteen thousand Southern soldiers, took up a position at Man-

assas Junction, about thirty miles southwest of Washington. In front of this position ran a stream called Bull Run, and along its line the first considerable battle of the war was fought on July 21. Beauregard's position threatened Washington, where General McDowell lay with about forty thousand men.

There was another little Confederate army, just over the mountains in the valley of Virginia, commanded by General Joseph E. Johnston.* But General Patterson, with a Northern force, had been sent to the valley to keep Johnston there and prevent him from joining Beauregard. He did not succeed in this. Johnston hurried to Manassas as soon as he heard that McDowell was advancing. He succeeded in getting a part of his army there on the night before the battle, and in bringing up the rest of it while the battle was in progress.

Joseph E. Johnston

McDowell's plan was to cross Bull Run and attack Beauregard's left flank. A strong body of his troops succeeded in doing this. There was a sharp struggle here, and a part of the Southern army was driven back in some confusion. But General T. J. Jackson,* with a brigade of Virginians, stood firm and held the ground. It was then that General Bee rallied his brigade by crying out, "There stands Jackson like a stone wall." From that time forward Jackson was always known as "Stonewall" Jackson.

At this critical moment fresh troops from Johnston's army, led by Kirby Smith, came upon the field, furiously attacked the advancing Federals, and drove them back across Bull Run. In their undisciplined condition the Northern troops fell at once into a panic, which quickly spread throughout the army. It broke ranks, and fled in confusion all the way to Washington.

Effects of the Battle of Bull Run.—The result of this battle

* For biography, see Appendix.

greatly encouraged the South, and made an impression favorable to the South in Europe. The defeat taught the North to be more patient. It taught both sides that the

A charge at Bull Run

war was to be a long and terrible one. While the fugitives from Bull Run were still pouring into Washington, Congress voted to raise five hundred thousand men. In August General McClellan, who had won some success in western Virginia, was put in command of all the Union armies in place of General Winfield Scott, who had been the General in Chief, but who was found to be too old for this crisis.

Summary.—1. Major Anderson removed his force from Fort Moultrie, in Charleston Harbor, to Fort Sumter, a stronger place. After several attempts had been made from the North to send supplies to Major Anderson, the Confederates opened fire on Fort Sumter April 12, 1861, and compelled its surrender. This was the beginning of war.

2. Lincoln at once called on the States for seventy-five thousand men, Thereupon Virginia seceded, and the rest of the border States, with the exception of Kentucky and Maryland, followed her. The first bloodshed

of the war occurred on the 19th of April in a street fight between a Baltimore mob and a Massachusetts regiment.

3. Early in the summer the Federal troops in West Virginia won some small battles, but the first great battle of the war was at Manassas Junction, or Bull Run, on the 21st of July. The Federal General, McDowell, there attacked the Confederate General Beauregard. The Northern forces were defeated and fled back to Washington.

Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," III., 347-355, 364-383, 397-405, 411-413, 442-450. Pollard's "The Lost Cause," 144-150.

CHAPTER XLVII

FROM BALLS BLUFF TO ISLAND NUMBER 10

Balls Bluff.—For three months the Army of the Potomac did nothing but drill and build fortifications around Washington. Johnston's army lay at Centreville, and Confederate batteries were erected on the lower Potomac, which interfered with Washington's communication with the sea.

On the 21st of October a small and on the Federal side an ill-directed battle took place at Balls Bluff, on the Potomac above Washington. The Union troops were driven back to the river, and many of them captured. After this defeat McClellan did nothing more for months.

There was some activity on the part of the navy, and the forts at Hatteras Inlet and Port Royal, on the southern coast, were captured. The blockade of Southern ports was made stronger, but English vessels built for that purpose were constantly engaged in blockade running.

The Trent Affair.—The South had hope of persuading England to interfere in her behalf. English factories employing many thousands of men depended on the Southern States for their cotton. It was believed in the South that Great Britain would not long submit to a blockade which cut off the supply of cotton.

In the hope of securing recognition by France and Eng-

land, the Confederate government sent out two commissioners, Mr. Mason and Mr. Slidell, to lay their case before England and France. The commissioners ran the blockade to Havana. There they took passage in the English mail steamer "Trent." Captain Wilkes, in command of an American frigate, overhauled the "Trent" at sea, boarded her, and took off Mason and Slidell. The affair very nearly led to war between this country and England. The English even sent troops to Canada, and prepared fleets for battle. The British government demanded that Mason and Slidell should be given up. William H. Seward,* who was Secretary of State at Washington, saw clearly that Captain Wilkes had been in the wrong, and with an adroit explanation which satisfied the people of the North he set the Confederate commissioners free.

Forts Henry and Donelson.—The Confederate line of defense ran across the country from Virginia through Cumberland Gap, and thence through Kentucky, by way of Mill Springs, Bowling Green, and Columbus, into Missouri. Two rivers, the Tennessee and the Cumberland, flowing northward and westward, crossed this line of defense. Near the border line between Tennessee and Kentucky the two streams lie within eleven miles of each other, and here the Confederates built Forts Henry and Donelson.

In January, 1862, General Thomas defeated a Confederate force under Crittenden and Zollicoffer near Mill Springs. Shortly afterward General Grant,* with fifteen thousand men, supported by Commodore Foote with a fleet of gunboats moved up the rivers against the two forts. The gunboats silenced the batteries at Fort Henry on February 6, 1862, before Grant arrived. The garrison retreated overland to Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland.

Grant moved at once upon that post. The gunboat fleet failed and was badly crippled in an attack upon the works there. Grant, now reënforced, surrounded the fort, and the Confederates undertook to cut their way out. On

* For biography, see Appendix.

the morning of February 15 they fell upon the right of Grant's army, and after a hard fight broke through it. Grant was absent in consultation with Foote at the time. When he came back and saw what had occurred he was convinced that the Confederates must have weakened their forces at other points in concentrating upon his right. He rode rapidly to the left, calling to his men to fill their cartridge boxes and get into line to prevent the enemy's escape. He pushed forward his left and captured a part of the Confederate work while his right was recovering the lost

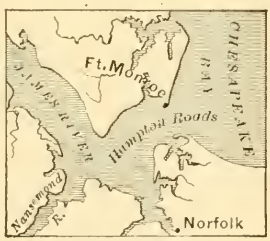
The War in the West

ground in front. During the night after this battle General Floyd, the Confederate commander, escaped with a part of his army in two small steamers. General Pillow and General Forrest, with a few hundred men, got away on horseback over a submerged road. General Buckner, who was thus left in command, asked Grant what terms of surrender he would allow, and Grant made his famous answer, "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." Fort Donelson surrendered February 16, 1862, with nearly fifteen thousand prisoners.

Effects of the Fall of the Forts.—This was the first Union success of considerable moment. The capture of the forts broke the Confederate line of defense and forced the Southern armies to abandon Bowling Green, Nashville, and Columbus.

In the meanwhile an irregular warfare had been carried on from the beginning in Missouri. At the battle of Wilsons Creek, August 10, 1861, the Union General Lyon had been killed and his troops defeated. On the 18th of September, 1861, the Confederate General Price had attacked the town of Lexington, in Missouri, and captured three thousand prisoners. Finally, on the 6th of March, 1862, a few weeks after the fall of Fort Donelson, a severe battle was fought at Pea Ridge, in northern Arkansas, which secured Missouri to the North and thus completed the pushing back of the Confederate forces along the whole western portion of their line.

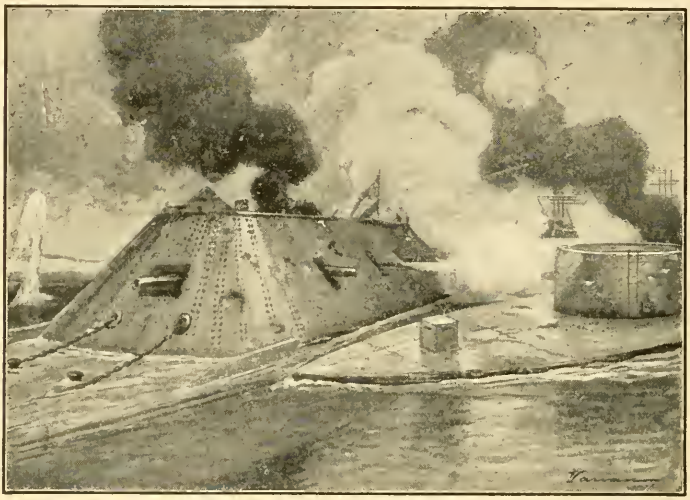
The "Merrimac" and the "Monitor."—The Confederates had seized the Portsmouth navy yard, opposite Norfolk, at the beginning of the war. The Union forces there, before abandoning the post, had partly burned and sunk a new steam frigate called the "Merrimac." The Confederates raised the ship, plated her sides, and covered her deck with a sloping wall of railroad iron, and named her the "Virginia." This ship steamed out into Hampton Roads (March 8, 1862), where lay five wooden United States vessels. Some of these headed toward the new monster, but quickly ran aground.



Hampton Roads

The war ships "Congress" and "Cumberland" and the batteries on shore at once opened fire on the "Merrimac," but their shots bounded like India rubber balls from her plated sides. She ran straight for the "Cumberland," and punched a great hole in the side of the ship with her steel

ram. The crew of the "Cumberland" continued to fire until the sinking of the vessel brought the muzzles of their guns to the water's edge. The "Merrimac" next fell upon



The "Merrimac" and the "Monitor"

the "Congress," which she quickly set afire with hot shot. The victorious ironclad then returned to her anchorage at Norfolk, her officers intending to steam out again on the following morning and destroy the "Minnesota," which lay hopelessly aground.

There was consternation in the North. It was seen that wooden war vessels were useless against such a craft as this. But there was help at hand. While the Confederates had been raising the "Merrimac" and covering her with iron, another sort of ironclad vessel, planned by Captain John Ericsson, had been built. The "Monitor," as she was called, was on her way southward, and was nearing Hampton Roads at the very time when the "Merrimac" was sinking ships there. Built with a low deck, almost under water, and having a revolving turret containing two heavy guns, she was said to be like a "cheese box on a raft."

This curious little craft ran into Hampton Roads on the morning of March 9, 1862.

The "Merrimac," having come out again, steamed toward the "Minnesota," but the "Monitor" attacked her at once, and a four hours' battle ensued. Cannon balls glanced harmlessly off the sides of both ships. The "Merrimac" tried to ram the "Monitor," but that small and nimble craft slipped away from the blow. Finally the "Merrimac" ceased firing, one of her officers saying that it would do just as much good to snap his fingers at the "Monitor" every two and a half minutes as to hurl cannon balls against her. The "Merrimac" returned to Norfolk. It was a drawn battle between these two, but while the "Monitor" lay in Hampton Roads the Confederate ironclad could do no further damage to the fleet there.

This was the first time when two ironclad ships met in battle. It wrought a revolution in the construction of naval ships, making an end of wooden men-of-war throughout the world, and beginning all that we now know of great marine fighting machines.

The Battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing.—Some weeks after the capture of Fort Donelson Grant's army moved up the Tennessee to the neighborhood of Pittsburg Landing. General Buell, who was in command of the army south of Louisville had followed the retreat of the Southern forces from Bowling Green to Nashville. He was now ordered to move westward and unite his army with Grant's. Grant did not expect the Confederates to attack him at Pittsburg Landing. He intended to attack them instead at Corinth, where General Albert Sidney Johnston and General Beauregard had, by great exertions, concentrated a new army.

Albert S. Johnston

While Grant was waiting for Buell to come up, Johnston marched rapidly northward and fell upon the Union army on the morning of April 6, 1862. A fierce struggle ensued near

and round the little country church of Shiloh. The Union men were steadily forced backward, and some bodies of them were surrounded and captured. On the Northern side General Sherman * greatly distinguished himself on this day. General Albert Sidney Johnston, commanding the Southern army, threw himself into the thick of the fight and was mortally wounded. Beauregard succeeded him in command. Grant was several miles away when the battle began, and did not get to the field until it was in full progress. The first day of the battle was a defeat for the Federal army, which, when evening came, had been driven from its position, and was huddled around the landing at the river side. By the next morning a large part of Buell's army had come up, and fresh men fell upon the weary Southern soldiers, and after a hard struggle drove them back. They retired slowly and in good order, and the Union forces did not pursue them.

Island Number 10.— While the battle of Shiloh was in progress General Pope and Commodore Foote with the gunboats attacked the Confederate works on Island Number 10, in the Mississippi. This island lies in New Madrid bend, a great curve of the river below Columbus. By cutting a canal across the neck of land made by the bend in the river, Pope had placed himself below the fort, while Foote had run his gunboats past the batteries under a fearful fire. Under a vigorous and combined attack the fort was forced to surrender on April 7. Halleck, who commanded the Union forces in the West, now ordered Pope's force to join Grant at Pittsburg Landing, and went himself to take command at that point.

Halleck spent three weeks in preparation, and when at last he moved he consumed a month in slowly advancing by regular siege parallels against the enemy's position, twenty miles away. When he got there the Confederates had already abandoned the position, carrying away their guns and their stores. Memphis now fell into the hands

* For biography, see Appendix.

of the Union armies, and the Mississippi River was opened as far south as Vicksburg. A year had passed since the fall of Sumter. The line of Confederate defense in the West had been pushed south as far as Vicksburg, Chattanooga, and Cumberland Gap, but in Virginia nothing of any consequence had been accomplished.

Summary.—1. A little battle at Balls Bluff on the Potomac was won by the Confederates on October 21, 1861, and Fort Hatteras and Port Royal on the southeastern coast were captured by the Federals. Nothing else was done in the East during that year.

2. A United States vessel, under Captain Wilkes, overhauled the British mail steamer "Trent" at sea, and forcibly took from her Messrs. Mason and Slidell, Confederate commissioners, on their way to England and France. This very nearly led to war with England, but the affair was settled by the giving up of the commissioners.

3. Early in 1862 General Grant, supported by Commodore Foote with a fleet of gunboats, captured the two Confederate forts, Henry and Donelson, in Tennessee.

4. The Confederates having raised the sunken frigate "Merrimac," plated her with iron and re-named her "Virginia." She ran out into Hampton Roads, Virginia, and sank two United States warships (March 8, 1862). The next morning she was met by the new Federal ironclad ship, the "Monitor." This was the first battle ever fought between two ironclad ships. Neither hurt the other.

5. The battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, Western Tennessee, occurred April 6 and 7, 1862, between Grant and Albert Sidney Johnston. The first day the Confederates forced the Federal army back to Pittsburg Landing, on the Tennessee River, but during the night Grant was reënforced by Buell's army, and on the second day the Confederates were slowly forced back, and finally withdrew to Corinth, whither they were not pursued.

6. On the same day another battle was fought at Island Number 10, in the Mississippi. There General Pope and Commodore Foote carried a strong Confederate fortress.

7. Pope's army was then added to Grant's at Pittsburg Landing and General Hallock took command in person. After some weeks of waiting he marched against Corinth, but found when he got there that the Confederates were already gone.

8. Thus during the first year of the war the Union forces had captured three great Confederate strongholds in the West, pushed the Confederate line of defence as far south as Vicksburg, Chattanooga, and Cumberland Gap, and opened the Mississippi River to Vicksburg.

Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," III., 608-614. Pollard's "The Lost Cause," *224-229, 239-242.*

CHAPTER XLVIII

FROM THE FALL OF NEW ORLEANS TO THE SEVEN DAYS' BATTLES

The Taking of New Orleans.—New Orleans, near the mouth of the Mississippi, was the principal city in all the South. Towards spring, in 1862, Commodore Farragut * was sent to capture it. He had a fleet of wooden warships, and with him was another little fleet of mortar boats under command of Captain Porter.

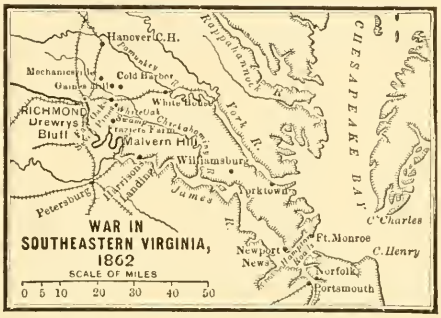
New Orleans was defended by two strong forts on the river bank at a point below the city where the stream is not more than half a mile wide. Below these a chain barrier was stretched across the stream, and above the forts lay a Confederate squadron, which included the ironclad ram "Manassas."

Five days of bombardment by the mortars made no impression on the forts, and Farragut decided to take his chances in an attempt to run by them in his ships. He did this under a fearful fire, and succeeded in getting most of his ships above the forts. There a battle ensued between the Federal and the Confederate fleets. Farragut triumphed at last and sailed up to the city, which surrendered on April 25.

The Peninsular Campaign.—While the Union forces had been making great gains in the West they had gained nothing thus far in Virginia. McClellan had drilled the Army of the Potomac until it had become a superb fighting machine, greatly outnumbering any force that the Confederates could oppose to it. But he was cautious and long lay still in spite of the popular clamor for action and notwithstanding Mr. Lincoln's constant urging.

* For biography, see Appendix.

At last McClellan planned a campaign. Instead of marching southward upon Richmond, he took his army by water to Fort Monroe, in Hampton Roads, and set out for Richmond by way of the peninsula which is formed by the York and James Rivers. McDowell had been left with forty thousand men to guard Washington, and presently was to move south and join McClellan before the Confederate capital. Another strong force under Banks was sent to the Shenandoah Valley to block that pathway toward Washington. McClellan had with him on the peninsula one hundred and twenty-one thousand men, forty-four batteries, and an equipment such as no army on this continent had ever possessed before. The only force that immediately stood in his way was one of eleven thousand men under Magruder at Yorktown. These had been stationed there merely for the purpose of delaying McClellan while the Confderate army at Richmond should be strengthened by reënforcements.



Southeastern Virginia

Instead of attacking Magruder at once, McClellan laid siege to Yorktown, and lay before it for a whole month. Before he was ready to attack, the Confederates, having secured their purpose of delay, withdrew to Williamsburg, where, a little later, a sharp but indecisive battle was fought. After the battle the Confederates retired to Richmond, and McClellan advanced to the Chickahominy River, only a few miles from that city. In spite of his superior forces he sat down there to wait for McDowell to join him. He threw a part of his force south of the river, leaving the rest of it on the north. He pushed his line westward, fortifying

strongly and completely investing the city on its northern and eastern sides.

Jackson's Valley Campaign.—In order to prevent McDowell from marching south to unite with McClellan, General Lee,* who directed all the Confederate armies, sent Stonewall Jackson to the Shenandoah Valley with a force of 17,000 men. The Federal force in that quarter was stronger than Jackson's, but it was so divided and scattered that the agile Southern General, moving suddenly and rapidly from point to point, was able to attack and defeat its several parts singly. He defeated Banks at Front Royal, May 23, and again at Winchester, May 25, driving him across the Potomac (map, p. 329).

It was believed at Washington that Jackson intended to assail that city, and so McDowell was turned aside from his march on Richmond and sent into the valley to aid Frémont in an attempt to capture Jackson, who was now retracing his steps with bewildering rapidity. By the burning of bridges and by quick movements, Jackson prevented the Federal forces from uniting, and defeated them separately at Cross Keys and Port Republic on June 9. After one of the most brilliant campaigns in history he left the valley laden with spoils, having marched more than one hundred miles in a few days, won four battles, and captured three thousand five hundred prisoners. With that wonderful suddenness that characterized all his movements, Jackson appeared on McClellan's flank before Richmond in time to take part in the great struggle there.

The Battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines.—In the meantime a battle had already been fought near Richmond. Near the end of May a great storm had raised the waters of the Chickahominy so high that it was difficult for the two wings of the Federal army to act together. General Joseph E. Johnston, who was in command at Richmond, seized this opportunity. On the 31st of May he attacked that part of McClellan's army which lay south of the river and nearest

* For biography, see Appendix.

to Richmond. The battle, which is called Fair Oaks in the North and Seven Pines in the South, lasted two days. On the first day the Confederates had the advantage. On the second the Federals regained their lost ground, and pushed a part of their force to points within four miles of Richmond. General Johnston was wounded in the fight, and General Lee took charge of the army there.

The Seven Days' Battles.—Lee's force was smaller than

Battle of Malvern Hill

McClellan's, but having succeeded in forcing the recall of McDowell to defend Washington, and having ordered Jackson to hurry to Richmond, he decided to attack McClellan, and if possible raise the siege of Richmond. He first sent his cavalry leader, J. E. B. Stuart, to study conditions in McClellan's rear, and Stuart marched entirely around the Federal army. On the 26th of June Lee threw a part of his forces across the Chickahominy, where they fell upon McClellan's right at Mechanicsville. During the

next day Jackson came up, and day by day the fighting continued for a whole week.

McClellan's communications with his base of supply on the York River were cut, and to save his army from capture he determined to retreat by a narrow road to Harrisons Landing on the James River, where supplies could be brought to him by water. The retreat was conducted in a masterly manner amid difficulties of the most terrible kind. It was necessary to abandon field hospitals with all their wounded, to destroy great quantities of food and ammunition, to march over narrow and difficult roads by night, and fight stubbornly by day and all the day, every day. But at last, after a week of such work, McClellan reached Malvern Hill, near the James River. Here he took up a position where both his flanks were protected by the gunboats in the river. In spite of this the Confederates, flushed with their victories, assailed the impregnable position time and time again, and one of the fiercest battles of the war ensued, in which both sides fought with the courage and determination of veterans. Every Confederate assault was repulsed, and as McClellan had reached the protection of his gunboats the famous Seven Days' fights were over. McClellan had succeeded in saving his army. Lee had succeeded in driving that army away from Richmond.

Summary.—1. In April, 1862, Farragut took New Orleans.

2. In the spring of that year McClellan moved upon Richmond by way of the peninsula between the York and the James Rivers. After besieging Yorktown for a month and fighting a battle at Williamsburg, he took position on the Chickahominy River, where, on May 31 and June 1, the battle of Fair Oaks was fought.

3. About the same time Stonewall Jackson was sent to the valley to overcome the Federal forces there, and so to threaten Washington, as to prevent McDowell from reinforcing McClellan. After doing this Jackson suddenly moved to Richmond and joined Lee.

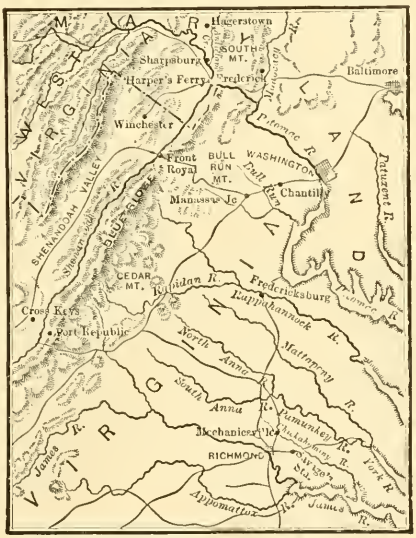
4. Then followed the Seven Days' battles, in which McClellan was compelled to retreat, fighting all the way to James River.

Collateral Reading.—Pollard's "The Lost Cause," 250-253. Rhodes's "History of the United States," III., 616-617; Vol. IV., 11-31, 37-49.

CHAPTER XLIX

FROM THE SECOND MANASSAS TO MURFREESBORO

The Second Battle of Manassas, or Bull Run.—Lincoln had lost confidence in McClellan. In July he brought Halleck from the West and placed him in supreme command, although Halleck had done nothing in the war except interfere with Grant. The forces of Frémont, Banks, and McDowell were brought together before Washington, placed under Pope, and named the Army of Virginia. Pope promptly advanced toward the Rappahannock.



Second Battle of Manassas

McClellan had been forced out of his works in front of Richmond, but his army was still strong, compact, and well organized at Harrisons Landing. Until that army should be dislodged Lee could not safely withdraw his own from the defense of Richmond. His first effort, therefore, was to force the Federal authorities to call back McClellan's troops to the North. To that end he sent Jackson to the Rappahannock to threaten Pope, and as fast as troops were withdrawn from McClellan's army to reënforce the Army of Virginia, Lee sent his other corps to join Jackson.

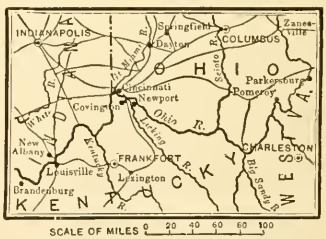
Having got his whole army into position, he took personal command of it, sent Jackson to march around Bull

Run Mountain and to come down upon Pope's rear at Manassas Junction. Pope promptly retired to protect his communications. On the 29th of August he fell upon Jackson in the second battle of Bull Run, which lasted for two days. Lee had quickly followed Jackson on his march, and instead of having Jackson alone to fight Pope found himself confronted by nearly the whole Confederate army. The second day ended in the defeat of the Federal army, which was driven back towards Washington, scattered and disorganized, after heavy losses. The battle sorely discredited Pope, and there was fear in Washington that under his command the city could not be defended against that advance which Lee was now certain to make. Pope was therefore sent West to fight Indians, and the defense of the city was intrusted to McClellan. He soon restored the forces near Washington to the condition of a well-organized army.

Braxton Bragg

The Battle of Antietam, or Sharpsburg.—There was now no enemy in Virginia for Lee to fight. The Federal armies were defending Washington instead of assailing Richmond. Lee determined at once to transfer the scene of war to the region north of the Potomac, where he hoped that the presence of a Confederate army flushed with victory might induce the young men of Maryland to flock to his standard and bring Maryland into the Confederacy.

About the same time a Confederate army under Kirby Smith had marched northward from Tennessee through Kentucky, occupied Lexington, and pushed a detachment to Covington, opposite Cincinnati. The Confederate General Bragg also had eluded General Buell, and was marching upon Louisville. The Confederates hoped thus to draw Kentucky also into



Confederate invasion of Kentucky

their Confederacy and enlist many thousands of its young men in their armies. The cause of the South looked bright at that time, and the clouds that overhung the North had no silver lining. Lee was seriously threatening Washington, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, while Bragg seemed likely to capture Louisville and Cincinnati.

The Federal garrison at Harpers Ferry was not withdrawn when Lee crossed the Potomac, as he had expected it to be. He had therefore to send Jackson back to capture that place, which he did, taking about thirteen thousand prisoners.

The two armies met on the 17th of September on Antietam Creek, near Sharpsburg, where one of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought. Some of the regiments lost more than half of their men. In that one day Lee lost about eleven thousand men and McClellan about twelve thousand. Both sides claimed the battle as a victory, but neither side had, in fact, won it. Neither was willing to attack the other the next morning, and neither ran away from the other. They lay facing each other for twenty-four hours without firing a gun. Then Lee quietly withdrew unmolested to the Potomac and crossed it. But while this encounter was what is called a drawn battle so far as the fighting was concerned, it put an end to Lee's invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania, and was to that extent, at least, a success for the Federal cause.

The Emancipation Proclamation.—The anti-slavery people in the North bitterly censured Lincoln for not doing something to put an end to slavery. His position was a difficult one. His purpose was simply to save the Union at all hazards. He felt that to do this he must respect the rights and opinions of the border State slave holders, who were lending loyal service to the Union cause. Ever since the beginning of the war slaves had been taking refuge with the Northern armies, and in some cases they had been given back to their masters when claimed by them. General Butler, in command at Fort Monroe, had refused

to give up negroes in this way. In time of war all goods which may aid the enemy are seized as "contraband of war." Butler contended that as negroes were property which could be used in fortifying and otherwise in aid of the enemy's cause they also were contraband of war. After that negro refugees were everywhere called "contrabands."

Lincoln had no authority under the Constitution to set the negroes free. It was only as a war measure that he could justify himself in doing so, and he did not think that it would be a helpful war measure to proclaim a thing of that kind at a time when the Union armies were being everywhere defeated. But when Lee retired to Virginia, after the battle of Antietam, the situation was changed, and on September 22 Lincoln issued a proclamation declaring that after January 1, 1863, all the slaves in those States, and parts of States, which should be then in rebellion should be free. He also announced that he would ask the next Congress to offer pecuniary aid to slave holders living in States not in rebellion who should voluntarily free their slaves. When the day fixed upon came (January 1, 1863), Lincoln issued a second proclamation, declaring free all the slaves in those States and parts of States which were then resisting the Union.

The Battle of Fredericksburg.—McClellan did not pursue Lee when the Confederates recrossed the Potomac, after the battle of Antietam, nor did he interfere with him in any vigorous way after he had settled down to repair the damage suffered in the campaign. McClellan was, therefore, removed from command, and General Burnside took his place at the head of the army of the Potomac. Burnside decided to advance upon Richmond by way of Fredericksburg, and with that in view posted his army on the Rappahannock, opposite that city. Lee placed himself on a line of hills behind the town. Burnside threw a bridge of boats across the river, and on December 13, 1862, attacked Lee in his works.

A. E. Burnside

Again and again the gallant fellows charged up Maryes Heights, only to be mowed down by a fire that nothing could withstand. The defeat of the Federals was complete,

Battle of Fredericksburg

and it brought a bitter disappointment to the North, where there was serious fear that European countries, in view of repeated Confederate victories, might insist on interfering in behalf of the South.

Murfreesboro.—The invasion of Kentucky by Bragg and Kirby Smith, in 1862, failed of its purpose of capturing Cincinnati and Louisville. Buell met Bragg at Perryville, Kentucky, where an indecisive battle was fought October 8. Bragg and Smith then left the State. Rosecrans, who had re-

Confederate invasion of Kentucky

pulsed a Confederate attack on Corinth (October 3 and 4), was now placed in command of Buell's army. He met the Confederates at Murfreesboro, and there a battle was fought on December 31, 1862, and January 2, 1863. On the first day the Federal forces were driven back, and were only saved from complete defeat by the prowess of Sheridan and Thomas, but on January 2 Rosecrans made a successful advance, and Bragg retreated. Both armies were severely crippled, but neither had distinctly conquered the other. Thus ended the second year of the war.

Summary.—1. After McClellan was driven to James River, the Federal forces in the Valley were brought to Washington, and General Pope advanced to the Rappahannock. Jackson threatened this force, and to strengthen it McClellan's army was withdrawn from the neighborhood of Richmond. Lee's entire army then joined Jackson, and fought the second battle of Manassas, or Bull Run, on the 29th and 30th of August, in which the Federal army was driven back and Washington seemed in danger. Pope was removed from command and McClellan reinstated.

2. Lee then marched into Maryland, capturing Harpers Ferry, with about 12,000 prisoners. McClellan met him on Antietam Creek, near Sharpsburg, where one of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought on the 17th of September. The battle resulted in victory for neither side, but after waiting for twenty-four hours, Lee retired into Virginia.

3. In September, after the Battle of Antietam, Mr. Lincoln issued his first emancipation proclamation, and at the beginning of the next year he issued the final one.

4. As McClellan did not pursue Lee from Antietam or offer battle, he was removed, and the command was given to General Burnside. Burnside advanced to Fredericksburg, where Lee met him, and in a great battle, on December 13, 1862, defeated him with great slaughter.

5. During the autumn of 1862 a Confederate army under Bragg and Kirby Smith invaded Kentucky and threatened Louisville and Cincinnati, but was checked by Buell at Perryville, Kentucky, in October.

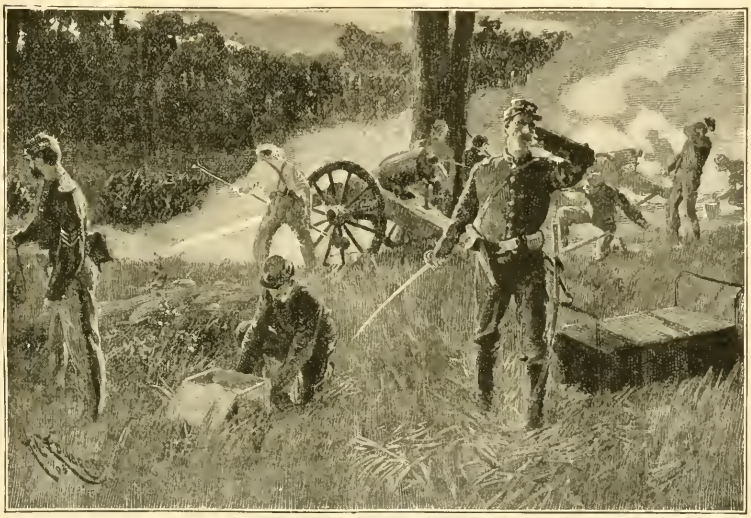
6. Rosecrans succeeded Buell, and on December 31 and January 2 fought a great battle at Murfreesboro, Tennessee, after which Bragg retired.

Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," IV., 131, 121-131, 134-136, 139-155, 193-198, 219-220. Pollard's "The Lost Cause," 307-309, 348-351.

CHAPTER L

FROM CHANCELLORSVILLE TO LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN

The Battle of Chancellorsville.—In the Spring of 1863, General Hooker, who had succeeded Burnside in command of the Army of the Potomac, had one hundred and thirty



Battle of Chancellorsville

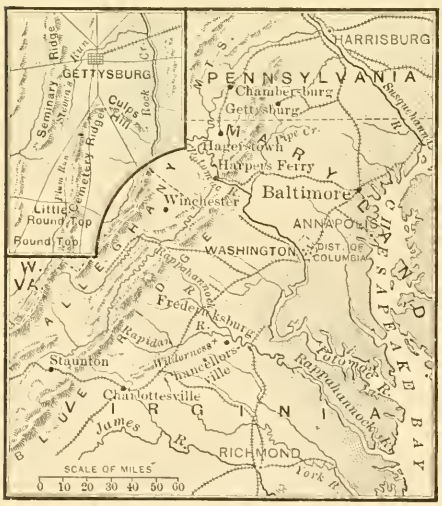
thousand men, while Lee had only about sixty thousand. Hooker sent a part of his army down the river to cross below Lee's position, and threaten his right flank. At the same time he moved with the greater part of his army up the river, and crossed into a tangled country known as the Wilderness. Having crossed the river, he pushed forward to a point called Chancellorsville, hoping thus to place himself in the rear of Lee's left flank.

But, leaving ten thousand men to hold the works at Fredericksburg, Lee had marched to meet Hooker, at Chancel-

lorsville. There he took a desperate risk. With less than fifty thousand men against about one hundred and twenty thousand he determined to divide his army in the presence of his enemy. He sent Stonewall Jackson with a part of the army to march secretly around Hooker's right flank, and fall upon his rear, while he himself, with the remainder of his force, should hold Hooker in check in front.

On the evening of May 2, Jackson delivered his blow on the Federal right and rear, taking them completely by surprise, and driving them before him until dark. After dark Jackson was by mistake shot by his own men, and died a few days later. On the next day the battle was resumed. Stuart, commanding Jackson's force, pushed his way over all obstacles, and joined Lee where that General was fiercely assailing Hooker's front.

At the end of the second day Hooker was badly defeated, and his army was driven back in confusion to the river. His losses amounted to about eighteen thousand men. Lee had lost about thirteen thousand. Hooker recrossed the river. Thus for the fifth time a great campaign against Richmond had been brought to naught.



War in the East, 1863

Gettysburg.—Having overthrown Hooker, Lee decided to make another bold move northward as he had done after the second battle of Bull Run. He advanced to the Potomac, crossed it, and pushed forward into Pennsylvania. Hooker followed him, covering Washington as he

marched. During this march, Hooker was relieved from command at his own request, and General George G. Meade succeeded him.

George G. Meade

Portions of the two armies met on July 1, 1863, near the little town of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. There the greatest battle of the war was fought on that day and the two days following. During the first day the Confederates had the advantage. During the night of that day and the next morning, the whole of the two armies gathered there. Meade entrenched himself on a line of hills called Cemetery Ridge, where Lee assailed him on July 2. The Confederates

Battle of Gettysburg

gained ground, but failed to dislodge the Federals. On July 3 Lee sent General Pickett with fifteen thousand men to assault the Union line. These brave fellows marched steadily for nearly a mile across an intervening valley which

was swept by Federal cannon, then rushed up the hill in face of a deadly fire of musketry, pausing but for a moment to "mass for a final plunge." When they reached the top, a hundred of them leaped over a stone wall which formed the Union line of defense at this point, and captured, and for a minute held, some Federal cannon, planting their battle flags on Cemetery Ridge. But the storming column was not supported, and it was soon driven back with terrible carnage. Thus ended the three days' battle of Gettysburg.

The losses in killed, wounded, and missing, at Gettysburg were about twenty-three thousand on the Union side, and over twenty thousand on the Confederate side. The battle over, Lee lay still throughout the 4th of July, neither side caring to assail the other. Then he slowly retreated to the Potomac. There floods detained him for a time, but Meade did not attack him.

The Siege of Vicksburg.—The capture of Island Number Ten, which led to the fall of Memphis, together with the capture of New Orleans by Farragut, had left the Confederates in control of only that small part of the Mississippi River which lies between Vicksburg and Port Hudson. To reduce those two strongholds was to open the river from its source to its mouth to Federal fleets, thus cutting the Confederacy in two. Grant had undertaken this task and had found it one of extreme difficulty.

Vicksburg was built upon high bluffs, overlooking the river. Its front bristled with cannon, and was seamed with fortifications. Grant wanted, if possible, to place his forces below the city where the ground was more favorable for a campaign. But to do that he must get past the city and its batteries, a thing which seemed impossible.

At last he marched his army over muddy roads, on the west side of the river, to a point below Vicksburg. But the river itself still lay between him and the point he wished to gain, and moreover it was impossible to carry provisions enough for the feeding of the men over the roads by which he had marched. He therefore ordered a fleet of gunboats

and vessels loaded with supplies to take the risk of running past the Vicksburg batteries during the night. The fleet succeeded in passing the town, and reaching Grant's position below, where the boats were used to ferry the armies across.

Grant boldly cut loose from all his communications, and pushed forward into the country, falling upon every Confederate detachment, and defeating one after another before they could unite for resistance. Within nineteen days he had crossed the Mississippi, marched one hundred and eighty miles through a difficult country, fought and won five battles, and placed his army in rear of Vicksburg, into which he had driven a Confederate army of more than thirty thousand men, under General Pemberton. On May 22 he tried to take Vicksburg by assault, but failed. He then began a regular siege.

Inside Vicksburg the situation was terrible. The town had to endure a constant bombardment and food was very scarce. Women and children were forced to live in caves dug in the cliffs, in order to escape the shells.

On July 4, 1863, the next day after the battle of Gettysburg, Vicksburg surrendered. So much was Grant impressed with the courage and endurance the Southerners had displayed that by his orders not a cheer was given by the conquerers as the Confederates marched out prisoners of war, while one division of Grant's army went further and shouted a hurrah for "the gallant defenders of Vicksburg." A few days after the fall of Vicksburg, Port Hudson surrendered. The Confederacy was cut in two.

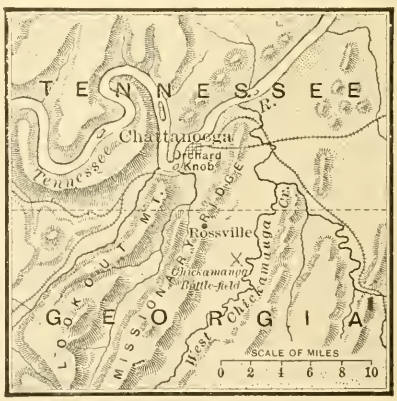
Draft Riots in New York.—After the first enthusiasm of the war wore off it was difficult, both North and South, to fill up the armies with volunteers. Early in the war the Confederate government had passed a conscription law, calling into the army all the men in the South who were fit to fight. At the North volunteering had been encouraged by offering large bounties in money to those who would enlist; but even this device was not sufficient, and in the summer of

1863 it was necessary to resort to a draft—that is to say, drawing by lot the names of those who were required to serve. The draft was resisted in New York by great mobs composed largely of foreigners. These mobs wrecked the drafting offices, hanged some negroes, and so far disturbed the peace that it was necessary to put them down by armed force, with some loss of life.

One of Morgan's raiders

Morgan's Raid.—In July, 1863, the Confederate General John Morgan, with a strong body of cavalry, made a great raid through Tennessee and Kentucky into Indiana and Ohio, tearing up railroads, burning bridges, and destroying factories. After doing much damage and causing great alarm, his force was in part captured, while the rest of it was dispersed.

The Battle of Chickamauga.—After the fall of Vicksburg the next important point which it was necessary to secure in the West was Chattanooga, Tennessee. That town was a railroad center, which commanded eastern Tennessee, where the people generally were of Union sentiments. General Rosecrans maneuvered the Confederates out of



Vicinity of Chattanooga

Tennessee in July and August, and finally seized upon Chattanooga without a struggle. He made the mistake of supposing that the Confederates under Bragg were retreating, and he hastened his men through the mountain passes in pursuit. Bragg turned upon him and fought the battle of Chickamauga on September 19 and 20.

In this battle the Confederates broke through the Union line and drove the right wing of the Federal army back in confusion to Chattanooga. General Thomas, in command of the left wing, held his own, however, and saved the day from being so disastrous a defeat as it had seemed to be to Rosecrans when he left the field with the rest of his army. Rosecrans fortified himself at Chattanooga, and Bragg besieged him there, occupying the commanding heights of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, thus cutting off supplies in part from the Union army.

James Longstreet

The Battles Near Chattanooga.—On October 23 Grant arrived at Chattanooga. His first care was to open a way for obtaining supplies. About that time Bragg detached twenty thousand of his men under Longstreet to besiege Burnside at Knoxville. Sherman had been ordered to Chattanooga with his army, and arrived there on the night of November 23. During that day Thomas had driven the Confederates back a mile further from Chattanooga. On the 24th Hooker forced his way across the north end of Lookout Mountain. On the 25th the Federal armies took Missionary

Ulysses S. Grant (1864)

Ridge. The Confederates were driven back on all sides, and retired into Georgia.

Sherman's Raid.—In February, 1864, Sherman marched from Vicksburg across the State of Mississippi, destroying railroads, engines, bridges, and the like, so that Chattanooga might be safe from attacks from that quarter. The only part of the Confederacy which was now able to offer any resistance lay south of Fredericksburg, in Virginia, and east of Dalton, in Georgia. General Johnston was at Dalton with seventy-five thousand men, and Lee lay upon the Rappahannock with sixty thousand.

Grant in Command.—In March, 1864, Grant was made Lieutenant-General and placed in command of all the armies of the Union.

Summary.—1. In the spring of 1863, General Hooker, with the Army of the Potomac, moved against Lee by way of the Wilderness, but was badly defeated at Chancellorsville (May 2 and 3).

2. Lee at once made a second invasion of the north, which resulted in the great battle of Gettysburg, July 1, 2, 3.

3. The Confederates held only that part of the Mississippi River between Vicksburg and Port Hudson. Grant was sent to take Vicksburg. After many fruitless attempts the place at last surrendered to him on the 4th of July. Port Hudson fell shortly afterward.

4. In the summer of 1863 bloody draft riots occurred in New York city, and the Confederate General, John Morgan, made a great raid across the Ohio River into Ohio and Indiana, doing much damage.

5. In September Rosecrans attacked the Confederates under Bragg at Chickamauga, near Chattanooga, and was badly defeated. He retired to Chattanooga, where Bragg besieged him.

6. In October Grant was sent to Chattanooga to take command, and on the 24th and 25th were fought the battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, which forced the Confederates back into Georgia.

7. In February, 1864, Sherman made a raid through Mississippi, destroying railroads, bridges, etc.

8. In March, 1864, Grant was made Lieutenant-General and placed in command of all the Federal armies.

Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," IV., 257-264, 304-318, 396-407. Pollard's "The Lost Cause," 372-376, 450-452, 456-457.

CHAPTER LI.

FROM THE BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS TO SHERIDAN'S RIDE

The Wilderness, Spottsylvania, and Cold Harbor.—In the campaign of 1864 it was Grant's chief purpose to crush Lee's army. He directed Sherman and others in the West to carry on campaigns there, which should prevent the sending of troops from that quarter to reënforce Lee. He even sent Canby from New Orleans to threaten Mobile, and, in short, wherever in the South or West there lay a Confederate force which might be sent to Lee, Grant ordered some movement which would fully occupy that force and keep it where it was. Having thus provided against the strengthening of Lee's army, he set out to crush it in the field.

Grant's campaign against Richmond

Early in May he crossed the Rapidan into the Wilderness, where Hooker had been defeated at Chancellorsville a year before. Lee instantly marched to meet him, and a fierce struggle ensued amid the tangled thickets of that wild land.

During the night of the 7th Grant marched to his left and took position at Spottsylvania Court House. There again Lee met him, and fighting continued fiercely from the 8th to the 12th of May, with heavy losses but with no decisive result. On the 11th Grant sent to Washington his famous message, "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." On the 18th of May he again assailed the

Confederate entrenchments, but failed to carry them. He then moved again to the left, and gradually pushed his way southward until he reached Cold Harbor, near the Chickahominy. On June 3 he made a tremendous assault upon Lee's works, and was repulsed with terrific slaughter, having inflicted almost no damage upon Lee.

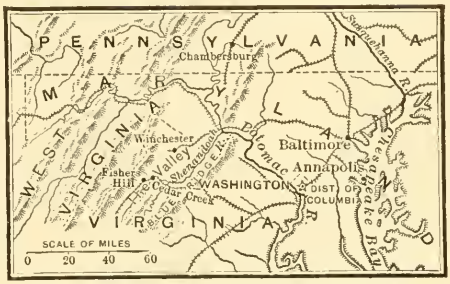
Finding it impossible to break through Lee's defenses at this point, he pushed on southward, crossed James River, and sat down before Petersburg, which lies twenty-two miles due south of Richmond. Here both armies fortified, and the greatest siege in all the war began. In this campaign from the Wilderness to Petersburg, Grant had lost nearly sixty thousand men, or nearly as many as the whole of Lee's army. He was heavily reënforced at Petersburg, and for more than eight months the two armies fought each other continually night and day.

The Petersburg Mine.—The lines of the two armies at Petersburg were pushed nearer and nearer to each other as the summer went on, until at last at one point they were less than fifty yards apart. There the Federals dug under the Confederate works and filled a great cavern with gunpowder. This was exploded about daylight on July 30, and a large Federal force rushed into the great hole, or "crater," as it was called. The explosion had blown up about two hundred feet of the Confederate works, making a gap through which the Federals hoped to force their way and reach Petersburg. The attack was badly managed, however, and resulted in the killing and capturing of a great number of Federal soldiers, after which the Confederates reëstablished their lines.

Early's Raid into Maryland.—Meanwhile Lee had detached a part of his small army and sent it under General Early to the Shenandoah Valley. Early defeated such Union troops as stood in his way, crossed the Potomac into Maryland, and on July 11, 1864, marched upon the fortifications of Washington.

There was great alarm in the North at this time. Grant's

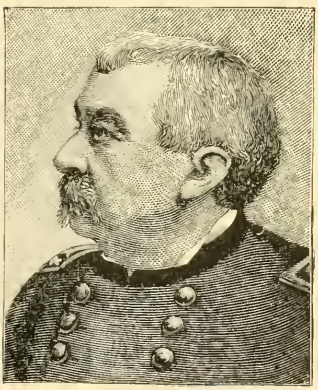
campaign was regarded as thus far unsuccessful, and the South seemed stronger than ever to persons ignorant of actual conditions. So great was the alarm, and so much weakened was the popular confidence in the government, that the paper currency of the country fell to about thirty-eight cents on the dollar in gold.



Early's raid into Maryland

After some fighting, Early fell back through the Shenandoah Valley. Late in July he turned upon the Union troops which were following him, drove them back across the Potomac, and sent a body of cavalry into Pennsylvania to burn the town of Chambersburg.

In August Grant sent General Sheridan* to the Shenandoah Valley to deal with Early. In September Grant visited Sheridan there, and gave him his orders in the two words, "Go in." Sheridan went in. He defeated Early at Winchester, September 19, and at Fishers Hill, September 22. On October 19, however, while Sheridan was absent, the Confederates routed his army at Cedar Creek. Hearing the firing twenty miles away, Sheridan made his famous ride. About four miles from the battlefield he met his fleeing men, rallied them, led them back into the fight, and changed the defeat into a victory.



Philip H. Sheridan

* For biography, see Appendix.

Raphael Semmes

The "Alabama."—Early in the war the Confederates had sent out a number of ships to prey upon the commerce of the United States. The most famous of these was the "Alabama." She was built in England, and suffered to sail in spite of the remonstrances of the government at Washington. Her commander, Captain Raphael Semmes, was a master of the art of sailing. This ship did enormous damage, capturing and burning nearly sixty vessels. At last, on June 19, 1864, a spirited battle was fought between her and the United States ship "Kearsage," near Cherbourg, France. The action resulted in the sinking of the Southern ship. Her officers and crew were picked up by an English yacht and escaped.

Summary.—1. In the spring of 1864 Grant set out to crush Lee's army in the field. Early in May he crossed the Rapidan, and after fighting the battle of the Wilderness moved to Spottsylvania Court House, thence on to Cold Harbor, and finally sat down before Petersburg, after almost continual battling for a month.

2. At Petersburg, July 30, the Federals exploded a great mine under the Confederate works and pushed a large force into the hole thus created. These failed in their purpose to force their way through into Petersburg, and great numbers of them were slaughtered.

3. Earlier in July Lee had sent a force under Early into Maryland and nearly to Washington. Early returned to the Valley, and being pursued fell upon his pursuer, drove him back across the Potomac, and sent his cavalry to burn the town of Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania.

4. Sheridan was sent into the Valley to deal with Early. He defeated him in two battles, but a little later Early fought and was getting the best of his army while Sheridan was absent. Then it was that Sheridan made his famous ride, rallied his troops, assailed Early, and completely defeated him.

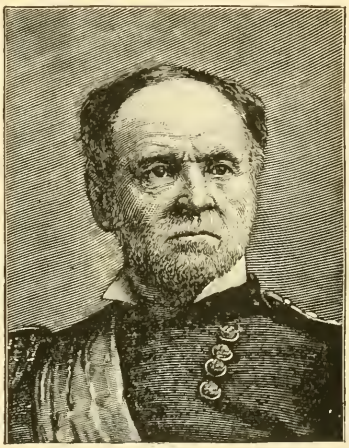
5. On the 19th of June, 1864, the United States Ship "Kearsarge" destroyed the Confederate cruiser "Alabama," near Cherbourg, France.

Collateral Reading.—Rhodes's "History of the United States," IV., 440-447, 466-467, 496-505, 518-522, 526-527, 536-537; Cooke's "Life of General Robert E. Lee," 396-399; Pollard's "The Lost Cause," 434-438.

CHAPTER LII

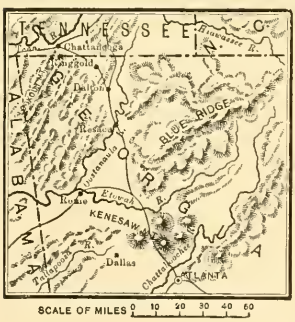
FROM THE TAKING OF ATLANTA TO THE END OF THE WAR

Sherman Takes Atlanta.—Acting under Grant's general direction, Sherman carried on a campaign in the West with a vigor equal to that which Grant was himself showing in Virginia. Little by little Sherman forced back the Confederates under Joseph E. Johnston, the two armies fighting each other at every step. There were battles at Resaca, May 14 and 15; at Dallas, May 25 and 28, and at Kenesaw Mountain, where Sherman was repulsed with heavy loss on June 27. Johnston continued to fall back and Sherman continued to follow him all the way to Atlanta.



William Tecumseh Sherman

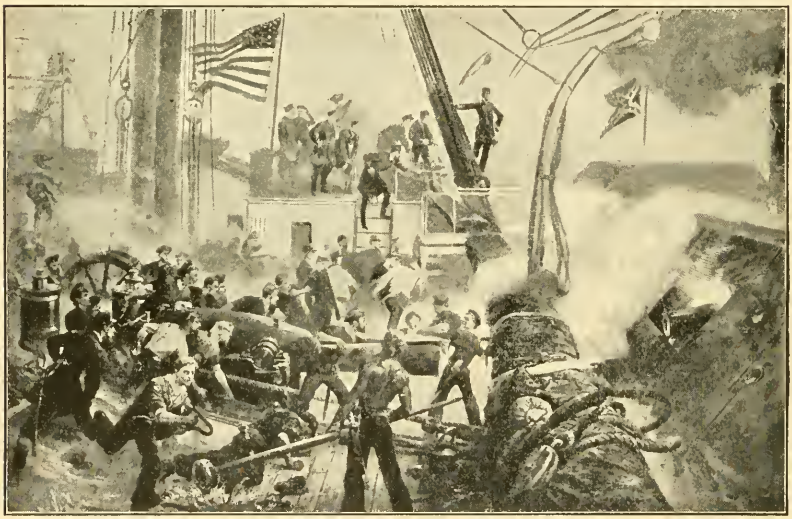
In the meanwhile President Davis had removed Johnston from command and put General John B. Hood in his stead. Hood attacked Sherman sharply several times, but without success. Sherman drove him into Atlanta, and threw a part of his own force to the south of that city to destroy the railroads there. This compelled Hood to retire from the town, and Sherman occupied it September 2, 1864. In this one hundred miles of marching and fighting, from Chattanooga to Atlanta, each side had lost about thirty thousand men.



Sherman's campaign at the West

Hood turned about and marched northward, destroying railroads and trying to cut off Sherman's supplies. He hoped thus to draw Sherman back from Atlanta, but after following him long enough to be sure that Hood was going to Tennessee, Sherman returned to Atlanta and sent heavy reënforcements to General Thomas, who had been sent to hold Nashville.

Farragut Takes the Mobile Forts.—On August 5, 1864, Admiral Farragut ran his fleet past the forts which defended

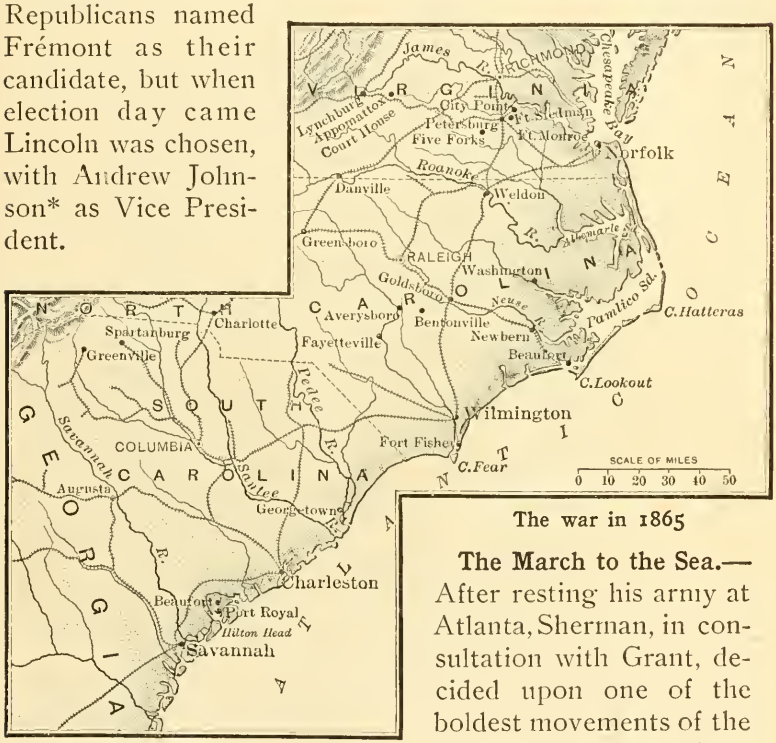


Farragut in Mobile Bay

Mobile Bay. A fierce fight ensued with the Confederate gunboats and the ironclad Tennessee. One of Farragut's ships was sunk by an exploding torpedo. But in the end he won the day, and though he did not capture the city he completely closed its way to the sea.

Lincoln Reëlected.—There had been great discouragement in the North during the summer of 1864. Early had threatened Washington, Sherman had seemed to be making but slow progress toward Atlanta, and Grant had not achieved

a success in the East equal to his victories in years gone by in the West. But the fall of Mobile forts, the taking of Atlanta, and Sheridan's brilliant success in the Shenandoah Valley put a new face on affairs. The people began to see that the war was drawing to a close. The Democrats nominated McClellan for President, and some discontented Republicans named Frémont as their candidate, but when election day came Lincoln was chosen, with Andrew Johnson* as Vice President.



The war in 1865

The March to the Sea.— After resting his army at Atlanta, Sherman, in consultation with Grant, decided upon one of the boldest movements of the war. With sixty thousand men he cut himself loose from his communications with the North, and set out to march to Savannah, living on the country as he went.

At last he appeared at Savannah, stormed and captured the fort that defended it on December 13, and before Christmas was in possession of the town. On January 15,

* For biography, see Appendix.

1865, Fort Fisher, North Carolina, was bombarded by a Federal fleet and taken by assault. This closed the port of Wilmington, the last Southern port of any consequence to the Confederacy.

Hood and Thomas at Nashville.—Meanwhile Hood had marched into Tennessee soon after the fall of Atlanta. His plan was to defeat Thomas at Nashville, move eastward to the assistance of Lee at Richmond, and, after repulsing Grant, join Lee in a march southward against Sherman. He fell upon the Federal General Schofield at Franklin, twenty miles south of Nashville, November 30. Schofield held his works long enough to withdraw his army, and then joined Thomas at Nashville. Hood undertook to besiege the Federals there, but on December 15 Thomas attacked him, and after a two days' battle destroyed his army.

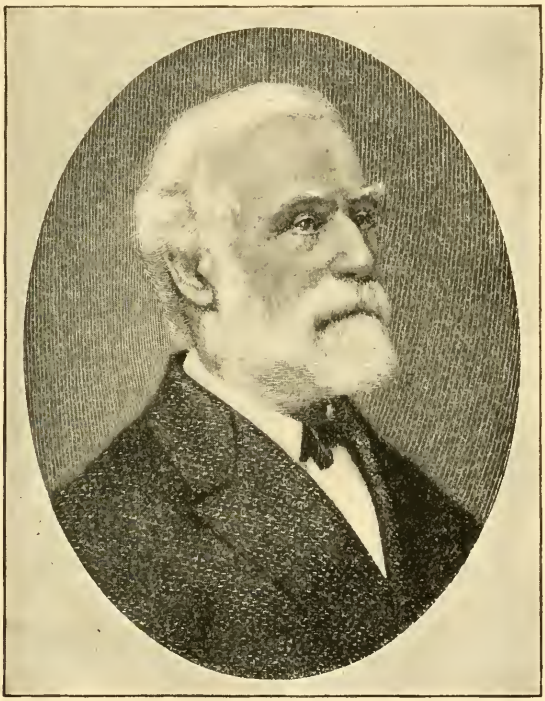
Sherman Moves Northward.—As spring approached, Sherman left Savannah, and, in execution of plans agreed upon between him and Grant, moved northward to form a union with the commanding general in Virginia. Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, was burned while he occupied it. Charleston fell next after Sherman's movements had cut it off. Johnston, with such Confederate forces as could be gathered from various quarters, opposed Sherman's advance, but was defeated at Averysboro, North Carolina. On March 19, 1865, one of Sherman's columns was very nearly routed by Johnston at Bentonville, but Sherman's advance continued to be resistless.

The End of the War.—Grant had now spent nearly a year in his effort to crush Lee's army. At Petersburg he continued to push his lines to the south and west, thus forcing Lee with his scanty numbers to stretch his lines in the same direction.

As spring drew near, Grant concentrated heavy forces to the south of Petersburg, and sent Sheridan to destroy the railroads on which Lee depended for supplies. Lee sent forces to meet Sheridan, but they were defeated in the battle of Five Forks, April 1, 1865. On the next day Grant pushed forward his whole army against the works at Petersburg,

and carried them, driving Lee into a retreat which was hopeless from the beginning. On April 3 the Federals marched into Richmond.

With what remained of his army Lee tried to retreat southward in the hope of joining Johnston and making a final stand. But Grant was behind him, on his left, and in



Robert E. Lee

his front. His retreat was completely cut off, and at Appomattox he found himself surrounded while his men were starving. On the 9th of April he surrendered to Grant, who gave him most honorable terms and at once ordered that food should be issued to the starving Confederates.

The war was now practically at an end. The remaining Southern armies laid down their arms when their generals

heard of Lee's surrender. The North, with its open ports and its abundant manufactures, came out of the contest more prosperous than at its beginning, while the South was desolated and confronted with a prospect of long years of poverty, a prospect which was made worse by the fact that the labor system of that section was completely destroyed by the freeing of the slaves. In their efforts to restore their region to prosperity after the ruin and waste of war the Southerners manifested a courage and proud-spirited determination as notable as their bravery in battle.

What the War had Settled.—The war had settled forever the question of a State's right to withdraw from the Union. It had decided by the final test of arms that these States must forever remain members of one sovereign republic.

It had also made an end of slavery, the one great influence which had divided the States, disturbed politics, and set the people of the two sections in antagonism to each other for generations past. To make this sure an amendment (the thirteenth) to the Constitution was adopted which declared that slavery should never exist within the United States or in any territory subject to this country's jurisdiction.

The Assassination of Lincoln.—From the beginning to the end of the war President Lincoln had kept only one object in view. He wished to restore the Union and make it perpetual. He had directed the war, as he himself expressed it, "with malice toward none, and charity for all." Now that the war was over and the Union saved, it was his earnest and eager purpose to restore the old friendship between the sections as quickly and as completely as possible. His first act was to issue an amnesty proclamation which included nearly everybody in the South.

Unhappily a crime was at this time committed in the name of the South, but without its sanction and greatly to its hurt, which interfered with the generous programme that Mr. Lincoln had marked out. On the night of April 14, as Lincoln sat in a box in Ford's Theater, in Washington, an erratic actor who had never been a Southern soldier

or a Southern citizen, shot and mortally wounded the best friend that the South had among the public men of the North. The assassin shot from behind and then leaped from the box to the stage, brandishing a dagger and profaned the motto of Virginia by crying aloud, "Sic semper tyrannis." Running out through a stage door, he mounted a horse that was waiting for him and rode away into Virginia. A few days later he was shot and killed by those who had pursued him. Lincoln was removed to a house opposite the theater, and died the next morning.

Great apprehension was aroused by the discovery that the murderous act had been planned by a company of conspirators who intended on the same night to assassinate the members of the cabinet and General Grant, and one of whom actually assailed Mr. Seward, the Secretary of State. The conspirators were soon discovered, and were so insignificant in influence and character that the terror which Lincoln's death had inspired soon passed away.

West Virginia.—The people in the northwestern part of the commonwealth of Virginia were opposed to secession. When this State joined the Confederacy many of these people entered the Union army, and soon the demand came in the western counties for the formation of a new State. Under our Constitution a new State cannot be formed from the territory belonging to a State without the consent of its legislature. The Legislature of Virginia was within the lines of the Confederacy, and was clearly opposed to the formation of a new State in the Union. To meet this difficulty a new legislature was formed for the State of Virginia, made up largely of people from the western counties. This legislature gave its consent to the division of the State of Virginia. The people in the counties named voted in favor of the proposed State. A constitution was framed and was submitted to Congress, and the State of West Virginia was admitted to the Union on June 19, 1863.

One other State, Nevada, October 31, 1864, was admitted during Mr. Lincoln's administration.

Summary.—1. In the spring and summer of 1864 Sherman pushed southward to Atlanta, and entered that city September 2.

2. General Hood, in command of the Confederates, moved into Tennessee, where Sherman had stationed Thomas with a strong force. In December these forces met before Nashville and Hood's army was destroyed.

3. On the 5th of August, 1864, Admiral Farragut took the forts in Mobile Harbor, and destroyed the Confederate fleet there.

4. After Hood moved northward from Atlanta, Sherman marched south through Georgia. He reached and took Savannah before Christmas. A little later Wilmington and Charleston, the last of the Confederate ports, were abandoned.

5. As the winter waned Sherman moved northward to form a junction with Grant in Virginia. Johnston, with a small army, contested every inch of the way, but could not stop the Federal advance.

6. In the spring Grant massed his forces at Petersburg, and carried the works there April 2, 1865. This compelled the evacuation of Richmond, and sent Lee's army, without supplies, into a hopeless retreat. On the 9th of April, at Appomattox Court House, Lee surrendered his starving men. The other Confederate forces soon afterward surrendered, and the war was over.

7. The war had established forever the principle that this Union is not to be dissolved. It had also made an end of slavery.

8. The moment the war was over and the Union restored, President Lincoln set himself to reëstablish friendship between the two sections. He issued an amnesty proclamation as his first act. But he was assassinated a few days after the surrender of Lee's army.

9. West Virginia was admitted as a State June 19, 1863.

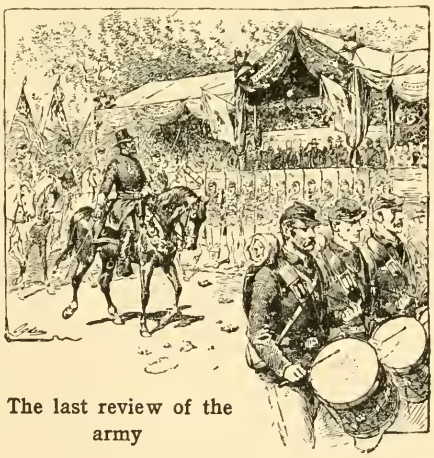
Collateral Reading.—Pollard's "The Lost Cause," 541-543, 577-580.

RECONSTRUCTION AND RECENT EVENTS

CHAPTER LIII

AFTER THE WAR

What the Civil War had Cost.—Between the fall of Fort Sumter and the surrender of Lee more than six hundred thousand lives were lost by the war. In the South the destruction of property was incalculable. In the North the waste of war had been great, and vast sums of money had been expended by the government. Much of this money was borrowed, and at the end of the war the nation owed no less than twenty-eight hundred and forty-five million dollars. No estimate can be made of the money spent by the South. The war has since cost the nation many hundreds of millions of dollars in pensions.



The last review of the army

Disbanding the Union Army. — At the end of the war the United States had more than a million soldiers in its armies. These were paid off and sent home at the rate of three hundred thousand a month until only fifty thousand of them remained. Before the final break-

ing up a grand review of the armies was held in Washington. The column of troops was so long that it required two days, May 23 to May 24, to pass the reviewing stand. The Confederate soldiers who had surrendered were released on parole. They numbered about one hundred and seventy-five thousand.

Paying the National Debt.—As soon as the soldiers were sent home and the expenses of the government reduced, the work of paying off the national debt was begun. Within less than a dozen years the debt was reduced nearly one half.

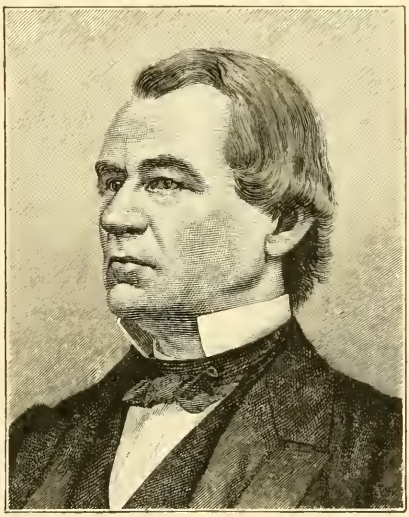
The "Greenbacks."—In addition to the money it had borrowed by selling its interest-bearing bonds the government had also issued some hundreds of millions of paper notes, or "greenbacks" as they were called from their color. These notes were "legal tender," that is, the law compelled everybody to accept them at their face value in payment of debts. They went up and down in value, measured by gold, according to the success or defeat of the national armies.

At the end of the war the government was not able to redeem these promises to pay in gold or silver, and so they continued for many years to be worth less than their nominal value. No gold or silver was used as money at that time because a gold dollar was worth more than a paper promise to pay a dollar, so long as that promise could not be kept. It was not until 1879 that the government held itself ready to redeem its notes in gold or silver. As soon as it could do that the notes became worth their face, and have continued to circulate as money.

The First States Reorganized.—In 1863, while the war was yet in progress, the States of Arkansas, Tennessee, and Louisiana came completely into possession of the Federal army, and Lincoln at once undertook to restore them to the Union. He issued a proclamation offering amnesty to all the people of those States, with some exceptions, who would swear allegiance to the Constitution and accept the Emancipation Proclamation. He also promised to recognize any State government which should be organized by

voters who had thus taken the oath of allegiance, provided their number was one tenth of the whole number of voters in their States. The three States named above were reorganized under these conditions in 1864, but Congress refused to receive their Senators and Representatives.

President Johnson's Policy.—When Johnson became President, after Lincoln's death, he undertook to manage things in his own way, and presently a great quarrel arose between him and Congress. He had a plan of his own, which he called "My Policy," for the restoration of the Southern States to the Union. This policy did not please Congress. It did not provide so fully as Congress desired for the protection of the free negroes, or for other things which Congress wanted to guard. Congress, therefore, would not receive the Representatives of the States which Johnson had recognized, while Johnson vetoed every law made by Congress with regard to those States. One of these laws continued in power a government agency called the Freedman's Bureau, which had been established in 1865 for the protection of negroes in the South. Another was a law giving negroes the same civil rights before the courts that white men had. Congress promptly passed these laws over the President's veto.



Andrew Johnson

The Fourteenth Amendment.—In June, 1866, Congress adopted the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution, and sent it to the States to be ratified. This amendment made

citizens of the freed slaves, and forbade any State to deny them their rights as citizens. It provided, also, that the debts of the United States should all be paid, but that neither the general government nor any State government should assume or pay any of the Confederate debts. It was difficult to get this amendment ratified by the requisite number of States. In order to do that Congress decided not to readmit any State to the Union until its legislature should accept the amendment. The Southern States generally refused, and Congress passed a reconstruction act over the President's veto in March, 1867. Under this act six Southern States were restored to the Union in 1868, but Georgia, Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas refused to comply with the terms offered.

The Tenure of Office Act.—The Constitution gives to the President the right to appoint and remove officers under the government. It was feared that Johnson would exercise this power by removing officers and appointing in their place others who would not enforce the new laws that had been passed over his veto. To prevent this Congress, in 1867, passed the Tenure of Office Act, which deprived the President of power to remove the higher officers of government without the consent of Congress.

The Impeachment of the President.—In spite of this law, which he held to be unconstitutional, President Johnson undertook to remove the Secretary of War from his office. This caused great excitement, and the House of Representatives impeached the President. The case was tried by the Senate, as all impeachments are. Thirty-five Senators voted that he was guilty, and nineteen that he was not. As he could not be removed from office except by a two-thirds vote of the Senate, he continued in office.

Maximillian in Mexico.—During the Civil War Napoleon III. of France and the Emperor of Austria set up an empire in Mexico in place of the republic, and made Maximillian, a brother of the Emperor of Austria, the ruler of that country. Our government protested against this as a violation of the

Monroe doctrine, but no heed was paid to its protest. Soon after the war was over, however, the United States sent troops to the Mexican border, and in 1867 the French forces were withdrawn. Maximillian was caught by the Mexicans and shot, and the Mexican Republic was restored.

The Purchase of Alaska.—In 1867 our government bought from Russia the territory called Alaska for the sake of its seals, gold, and timber.

The Pacific Railroad.—When California and Oregon began to fill up with people a railroad across the continent was felt to be necessary, not only for purposes of trade and travel, but still more for purposes of national defense. The Pacific coast was separated from the rest of the country by thousands of miles of trackless wilderness and two great ranges of mountains. Should a public enemy assail the rich cities that were growing up on our western coast, no aid could be sent to them except by sea all the way round South America or across the Isthmus of Panama.

Completion of the Pacific railroad

Long before the Civil War this need was recognized and plans were laid to meet it. When the Civil War came, bringing with it a serious danger of war with some foreign naval power, a railroad across the continent was seen to be an absolute necessity. In order to secure it, Congress offered government bonds amounting to more than fifty-five millions of dollars to those who should build it, besides giving them one half of all the land in a strip twenty miles wide along the line of the railroad.

The line was finished, and the last spike—made of gold—was driven May 10, 1869.

Gold, Silver, and New States.—The building of this railroad caused a large growth of population in Nebraska and elsewhere along its line, and Nebraska was admitted to the Union as a State March 1, 1867. In the meanwhile rich discoveries of gold and silver had been made in Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, Montana, and elsewhere; these caused a great influx of population, and Nevada was admitted to the Union as a State October 31, 1864. Colorado, Montana, and Idaho were made Territories, and Arizona was separated from New Mexico.

Nevada has hardly any agricultural resources, or resources of any kind except from its mines, and as these have become less and less productive the State has dwindled in population. In 1900 the State had only 42,335 inhabitants.

Summary.—1. When the war ended all the soldiers of the Union except 50,000 were sent home. This reduced expenses and enabled the government to begin paying off the national debt. The Treasury notes, or greenbacks, rose in value, until in 1879 the government declared its readiness to redeem them in coin. From that time a government note has been worth one hundred cents on the dollar.

2. After the war it was necessary to provide a way for the restoration of the seceding States to the Union. This gave much trouble, and led to a quarrel between the President and Congress, and to the impeachment of the President.

3. During this process of reconstruction a new amendment to the Constitution—the fourteenth—was adopted.

4. During the Civil War the French and Austrians had set up an empire in Mexico with Maximillian for emperor. The United States now got ready to drive out this foreign force, and the French withdrew their troops. The emperor was captured and shot, and the Republic was restored.

5. During the same year—1867—the United States bought Alaska from Russia.

6. The building of the Pacific Railroad and the discovery of new gold and silver mines led to the admission of two new States and the peopling of rich Territories.

Collateral Reading.—Andrews's "History of the United States," II., 185-189.

CHAPTER LIV

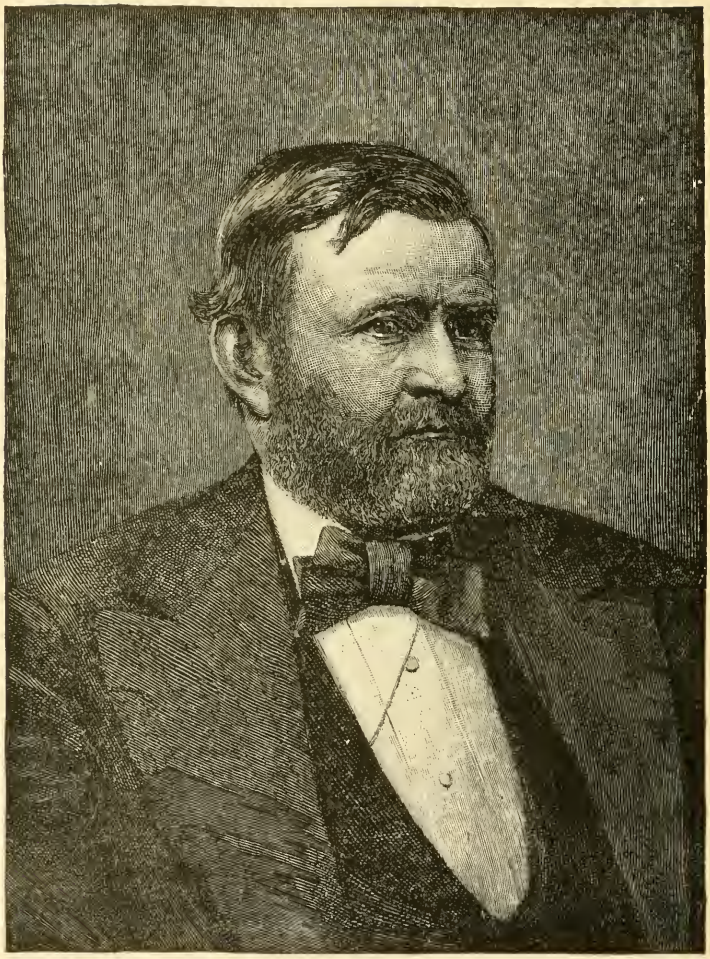
GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION

The Election of Grant.—In 1868 General Grant was elected President by an overwhelming vote. He entered upon office March 4, 1869. The Civil War had ended three years before, but the country was still vexed with many questions growing out of it and out of the quarrels which had ensued between President Johnson and Congress.

Three of the Southern States were still denied their place in the Union, and the South was much disturbed over the question of what should be done to manage the negroes there so that they might not bring harm to the public. There was still great bitterness, also, between many people in the North, and many in the South, and politicians on both sides, for selfish purposes, did all they could to stir up anger and hatred between the two sections.

A large part of the people of the North were convinced that there could be no safety for the negroes in the South unless the right to vote was secured to them. On the other hand, the people of the South felt that nothing could be more dangerous than to make voters out of recently freed slaves who had neither education nor property, and who might, therefore, be easily used by designing politicians for evil purposes.

The Fifteenth Amendment.—It was under these circumstances that Congress in 1869 sent to the States for ratification a new amendment (the fifteenth) to the Constitution. The effect of this amendment was to give votes to all the negroes in the South. In order to get back into the Union, Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas ratified this amendment, and were readmitted in 1870. In the same year the amendment became part of the Constitution. Georgia having been readmitted in 1868, all the States were now back in the Union. But the time of trouble was not yet past.



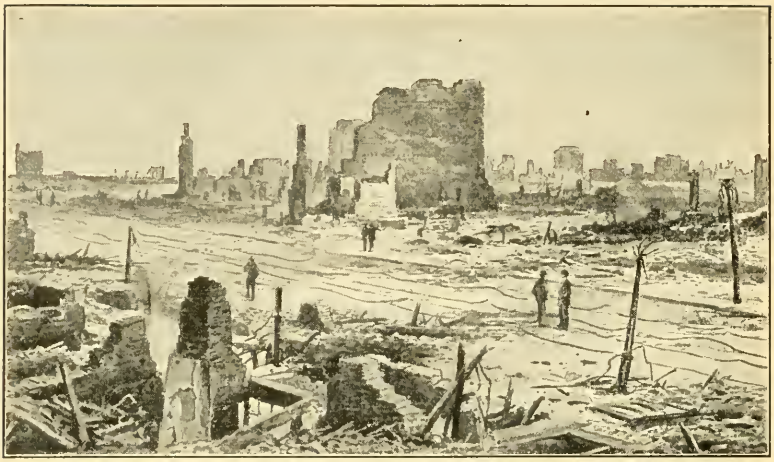
U. S. Grant

Disturbances at the South.—The first effect of giving the negroes the right to vote was to create much disorder in those parts of the South where the negroes greatly outnumbered the whites. A good many politicians from the

North, most of them men who could not have been elected to office in their own parts of the country, saw in this condition of things a chance to put themselves forward. Many of these went South without any intention of living there permanently or becoming a part of the community, but solely to get themselves elected to office and to make what they could out of politics.

In several States of the South these men managed to control the negro vote and to make themselves masters of the State governments and legislatures. They voted away millions of dollars of public money in wasteful expenditures, threatening thus to bankrupt the States, and to increase taxation till property should become worthless. The white people tried at first to keep the negroes from voting by means of bribes and threats of not employing them. When this failed a secret society was organized called the Ku Klux Klan. Its object was to frighten the negroes and keep them from voting. The society became so lawless at last that Southerners aided in suppressing it. In the meanwhile government troops were sent to keep order in the Southern States. Little by little the better class of white people came into power again in most of the States during Grant's administration. But it was not until the end of his second term that the troubles in the South were allayed and the anger caused by them subsided.

The Treaty of Washington.—In addition to our home questions growing out of the war there were matters to be settled with Great Britain. Our government held Great Britain responsible for letting the "Alabama" and other Confederate cruisers sail out of her ports to prey upon American commerce. We demanded that Great Britain should pay for the damage done by those ships. At first Great Britain refused, but in 1871 the matter was adjusted by a treaty made at Washington in which the two countries agreed to refer the case to a court of arbitration composed of five members, appointed one each by the United States, Great Britain, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil.



Chicago after the fire

This court met at Geneva, Switzerland, and decided the case in favor of the United States. It required Great Britain to pay us fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars as damages, the money to be used by the United States in paying our ship owners for their losses.

There were two other questions in dispute between this country and Great Britain. One of them related to the boundary east of Vancouver Island, involving the title to a small group of islands. It was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who decided it in favor of the United States. The other related to the Canadian fisheries, and the arbitrators chosen to decide it gave their verdict in favor of Great Britain, requiring the United States to pay to that country five million five hundred thousand dollars for fishing privileges on the Canadian shores.

The Chicago and Boston Fires.—On October 8, 1871, a fire broke out in Chicago, which destroyed the best part of the city. Two hundred lives were lost, and two hundred million dollars worth of property was destroyed. In November of the next year a great fire occurred in Boston, destroying about eighty million dollars' worth of property.

With great energy and with pluck that excited the admiration of the world, the two cities were quickly rebuilt.

The Election of 1872.—Many things in Grant's administration, especially its dealings with Southern questions, had displeased a considerable body of Republicans. These withdrew themselves from their party and set up a new party called Liberal Republicans. In 1872 they nominated Horace Greeley for President, and the Democrats in that year made no nominations of their own, but endorsed Greeley, though he had been a life-long antagonist of the Democratic party. This movement came to nothing, Grant being overwhelmingly reëlected.

The Credit Mobilier.—In the campaign of 1872 it was openly charged that a company called the Credit Mobilier of America, which was making vast sums out of the construction of the Pacific Railroad, had been giving shares of its stock to various persons in Congress and in the government by way of inducing them to favor the company's schemes. The investigation that followed showed that some members owned stock in the company, but no one was convicted of conscious wrongdoing.

Indian Wars.—In 1872 the government undertook to remove the Modoc Indians of southern Oregon to a new reservation. They refused to go, and when General Canby was sent to arrange the matter with them they treacherously killed him. A war ensued, led on the part of the Indians by a chief called Captain Jack. It lasted nearly a year. Four years later another Indian war occurred. The Sioux had agreed to remove before January, 1876, to a reservation in Dakota, but they did not do so. When the troops tried to compel them to keep their promise they fled to the mountains near Big Horn River. There General Custer attacked them on June 25 with a regiment of cavalry, and as he was not supported by his second in command, Major Reno, he and all his men were slaughtered. The war was continued until the Indians were overcome by General Miles.

The Panic of 1873.—For many years before 1873 men had

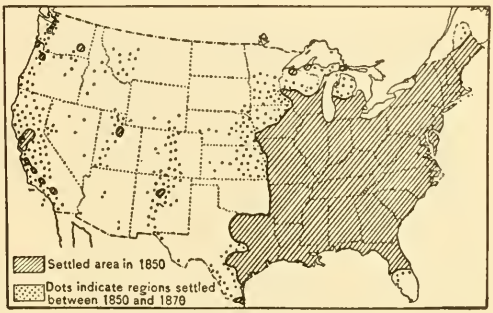
The Custer Massacre

been building railroads in this country much faster than they were needed. Many of these roads did not earn enough to pay their expenses. Those who built them had done so with borrowed money, issuing great volumes of stock certificates and bonds, on much of which they could not pay the interest. This led in 1873 to a great financial panic, which was followed by hard times for several years afterwards.

The Centennial Exhibition.—In 1876 a great World's Fair was held in Philadelphia to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence. One of its purposes was to show what progress Americans had made, and among the most notable new inventions exhibited there were the telephone and the electric light.

A New State and the Census.—One State, Colorado, was admitted during Grant's administration. It entered August 1, 1876, and is called "the Centennial State." The census

of 1870 showed a population in the Union of 38,560,000. Every previous census had shown a gain of from 33 to 36 per cent. in population during the decade. This census showed a gain of less than 25 per cent. This census is believed to have been very inaccurate, especially in its enumeration of the people at the South. But the falling off in growth was in part due to the Civil War.



Settled area in 1870

Summary.—1. During Grant's adminstration the country was still disturbed over questions arising out of the war, and especially over the question what to do about the negroes. It required several years to settle these matters.

2. The disputes with Great Britain concerning the Alabama claims, the Canadian fisheries, and the northwest boundary were settled by arbitration.

3. A war with the Modoc Indians occurred in 1872 and one with the Sioux in 1876. In the latter General Custer and his force were slaughtered before the Indians were subdued.

4. A great financial panic occurred in 1873, and in 1876 the Centennial Exposition was held in Philadelphia.

Collateral Reading.—Andrews's "History of the Last Quarter Century of the United States," I., 36-40, 88-92. II., 5-10, 186-188, 253-260.

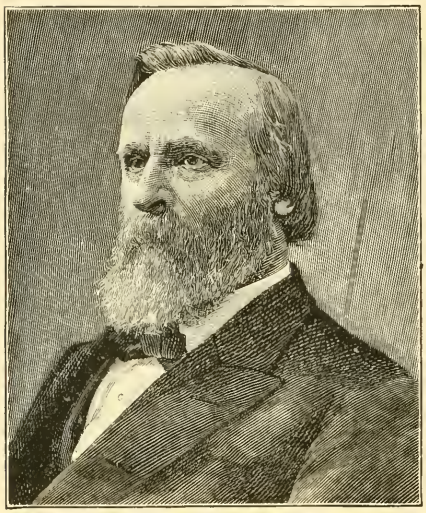
CHAPTER LV

HAYES, GARFIELD, AND ARTHUR

The Election of 1876.—In 1876 the Republican candidate for President was Rutherford B. Hayes,* of Ohio, and the Democratic candidate was Samuel J. Tilden, of New York.

* For biography, see Appendix.

The vote was so evenly divided between the two candidates that the result depended upon Louisiana, South Carolina, and Florida. All three of these States seemed to have voted for Tilden, and if their votes were counted for him he would be elected, but if counted for Hayes then Hayes would be President. In each of the three disputed States the ballots of the people were counted by a body called a "Returning Board." This board was authorized to throw out the entire vote of any county in which voters were supposed to have been kept from the polls by force or by fear. In Louisiana and Florida the Democrats had strong majorities, but the Returning Board threw out enough votes to give those States to the Republicans. The Democrats disputed the legality of this, and so there were two sets of electors for these States, each set claiming to be the legal one. In Oregon, also, there was a similar dispute.



Rutherford B. Hayes

This matter, of course, had to be settled by Congress before the electoral vote could be counted, and, as the Democrats had a majority in the Lower House, while the Republicans controlled the Senate, the two Houses could not agree. But at last the two Houses of Congress agreed to refer the matter to an electoral commission to be composed of five Senators, five Representatives, and five Justices of the Supreme Court. The Senate and House each appointed its members of the commission. They also

selected four of the five Judges, and these four chose the remaining one. The commission when complete consisted of eight Republicans and seven Democrats. By a vote of eight to seven it gave the disputed electoral votes to Hayes, and he was elected by a majority of one vote.

The Nez Perce War.—One little Indian war occurred during this administration with the Nez Perce Indians of the far Northwest in 1877. The Indians retreated, fighting as they went for fifteen hundred miles, across Idaho and Montana, but were finally forced to surrender. They killed no women or children in this war and did no scalping.

The Railroad Strike of 1877.—In 1877 a great strike occurred among the men on the great railroads because of a question of wages. The strike spread throughout the Northern States. It was accompanied by violence and riots at Pittsburg, Chicago, and St. Louis, and for a time the railroad traffic of the country was very nearly stopped. At Pittsburg much property was destroyed and many lives lost. The matter was adjusted in about two weeks and the trains were set going again.

Railroad riot, Pittsburg

Financial Legislation.—In 1873 a law was passed to regulate the coinage of money by the United States mint. Silver dollars were no longer in use, because the silver in such a dollar was at that time worth more than a dollar. In providing for the various coins the act did not provide for a silver dollar for use as money in this country. It ordered that small coins and the

trade dollar should be made of silver. The trade dollar had more silver in it than the old American silver dollar, and it was not intended to be used in this country at all. It was made in order to help our merchants in trading with China. In that country the standard money consisted of Mexican silver dollars, but the Chinese were willing to take our trade dollar instead.

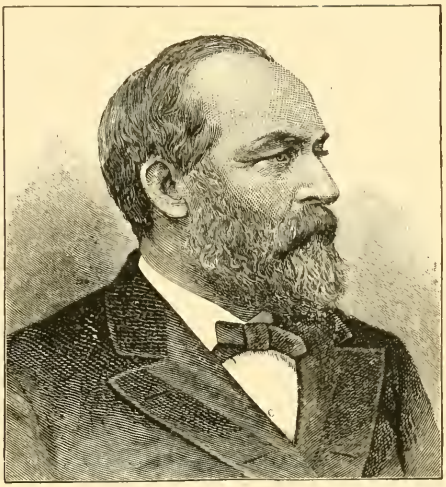
Not long after this great quantities of silver ore were discovered in the Rocky Mountain country, and silver as a metal fell in price, so that the trade dollar which had really been worth more than a gold dollar when it was coined, became worth much less. Many of the trade dollars had come home in the meanwhile, and people holding them could not pay debts with them as they were not legal money in this country. To correct this evil Congress passed an act requiring the government to redeem all trade dollars offered to the Treasury.

In 1878 a new coinage act was passed. People who were interested in silver mines and people who believed that there was too little money in the country were anxious to have the government coin silver dollars as freely as it coined gold dollars. The act of 1878 did not provide for this, but it did provide that the government should coin a certain number of silver dollars each month. The President vetoed the bill, but it was passed over his veto.

In 1875 an act was passed authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to sell bonds of the government for coin, and directing him on and after January 1, 1879, to redeem all greenbacks that should be presented to him with coin. This was done, and the greenbacks at once became worth their face in gold.

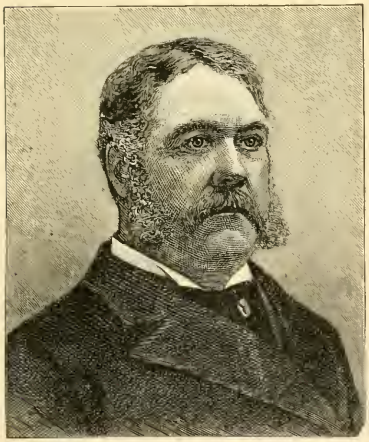
The Mississippi Jetties. — The Mississippi River is very muddy. As it flows into the Gulf of Mexico it deposits great masses of mud upon the bottom, making the mouths of the river very shallow. This made it difficult for large ships to come up to New Orleans. In order to correct this difficulty Captain James B. Eads, a civil engineer, pro-

posed to deepen one or more of the Mississippi's mouths by extending the banks with artificial walls called jetties on each side of the stream out into the deep water of the gulf. This would increase the current of the stream at its shallow mouth, and force the water in passing out to deepen the channel. He finished this work under orders of the government in 1879, and the result was that where there had been only eight feet depth of water in 1875, there was, four years later, no less than thirty feet.



James A. Garfield

The Election of 1880.—In 1880 certain friends of General Grant tried to nominate him for a third term as President. There is no law to prevent this, but ever since Washington and Jefferson refused to be elected for a third time, the people have held that no other man should have more than two terms. This sentiment was so strong that in spite of General Grant's great popularity the stubborn efforts of his friends to nominate him failed. The Republicans



Chester A. Arthur

nominated and elected James A. Garfield,* of Ohio, with Chester A. Arthur,* of New York, for Vice President. Garfield had been President only four months when he was shot by a disappointed office seeker, July 2, as he stood in a railroad station in Washington. He died of the wound on September 19, and Vice President Arthur succeeded him.

Civil Service Reform.—A sentiment had long been growing in the country in favor of a change in our system of appointing men to minor offices. From Jackson's time onward it had been the custom of all Presidents to put men into office rather for party reasons than because of the men's fitness for the work to be done.

In 1883 a bill was passed creating a civil service commission which was authorized to appoint examining boards for office seekers. This commission was to make such rules as it thought best and to examine all candidates for such offices as the President might see fit to place under the new system.

This law relieved the President of a great responsibility and much trouble, by authorizing him to put into the "classified list"—that is the list of offices to be filled in this way—whatever offices he saw fit. This system, once established, has been greatly improved, and is now in very general use by States and cities, as well as by the national government.

The Tariff of 1883.—In 1883 the government again found itself with more money coming in from taxes than it needed. This extra money could not be used in paying off more than had been paid of the national debt, because this debt was in the form of bonds held by the people, and the government had agreed that these bonds should not be called in and paid before the dates named in them. A great many people wanted to go on holding these bonds and drawing interest on them. These people would not give them up unless they were paid a high premium for doing so.

* For biography, see Appendix.

In order to reduce the income of the government, therefore, a new tariff act was passed in 1883. It was intended to yield less revenue than had been furnished by the tariff formerly in force, but did not accomplish this purpose, because it did not greatly change the import duties already in force. The question what to do with the surplus remained to be dealt with and it presently became an issue between the two parties. Both parties agreed that the surplus revenue must be somehow reduced, but they differed widely as to how this ought to be done.

Population.—By the census of 1880 the population was found to be 50,160,000. The increase during ten years had been about 30 per cent. It was largely due to an unusually large foreign immigration between 1870 and 1880. In no previous decade had so many immigrants come to the country, but even this large influx was destined to be exceeded during the next ten years.

Summary.—1. In 1876 there was a disputed presidential election, which was at last settled by an electoral commission, and Mr. Hayes, the Republican candidate, became President.

2. During Mr. Hayes's administration arose the very interesting question of coining or not coining silver dollars.

3. In 1879 the government resumed specie payments—that is, held itself ready to give coin for every Treasury note that might be offered for redemption.

4. Eads's jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi were completed in 1879.

5. In 1880 James A. Garfield, of Ohio, was elected President, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, Vice President. After four months in office Garfield was assassinated, and Arthur succeeded him as President.

6. In 1883 the first civil service reform law was passed by Congress. The system has since come into general use.

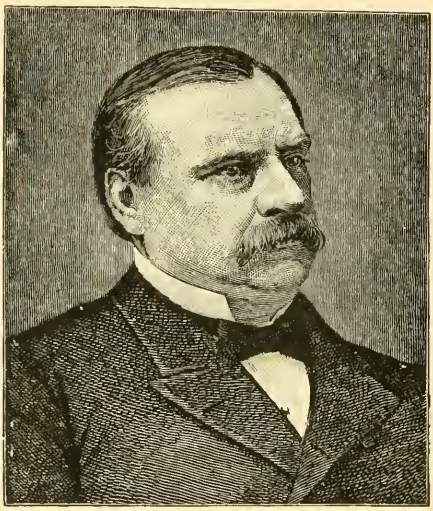
7. In 1883 a new tariff law was enacted for the purpose of cutting down the revenues of the government. It failed to reduce the revenue, and the question what to do with the surplus was left to be settled later.

Collateral Reading.—Andrews's "History of the Last Quarter Century of the United States," I., 223-226, 263-268, 303-306, 329-336.

CHAPTER LVI

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION

The Election of 1884.—In 1884, the Democratic party nominated for President, Grover Cleveland,* of New York, and the Republican candidate was James G. Blaine, of Maine. A great many Republicans, especially in New York, disliked Mr. Blaine, and refused to vote for him. Most of them strongly supported Mr. Cleveland, instead. These voters called themselves Independents, but some one nicknamed them "Mugwumps," and that name soon came into popular use. Mr. Cleveland was elected and became the first Democratic President since the beginning of the Civil War.



Grover Cleveland

Civil Service Reform.—Cleveland was the first President elected since Jackson's time who did not follow Jackson's example in making a general change in office holders. He governed himself by the civil service act of 1883 in making most of the minor appointments, and removals from the smaller offices were made only because of "offensive partisanship." In other words, wherever a capable man was in an office the duties of which were not political, he was left there so long as he did not use his office for political

* For biography, see Appendix.

purposes. Wherever an office of a non-political kind was to be filled, the appointment was made as the result of an examination designed to find out which of the applicants for the place was best fitted to fill it.

Labor Troubles.—The country was at this time very prosperous and the employers of men in factories, on railroads and otherwise were rapidly building up great fortunes. The men whom they employed thought that they were not getting so large a share as they ought in this prosperity. They wanted better wages, and shorter hours of work. And in trying to get these they made many strikes. In order to meet these strikes the employers began importing laborers in great numbers from Europe who were willing to work for low wages in place of those who had "gone on strike." The laboring men demanded of Congress that it should protect them against this system of importing cheap labor from other countries, and in answer to their demand Congress passed, in 1885, just before Cleveland's inauguration, an act which forbade any one to bring people into this country under a contract to employ them here as laborers.

Strike Troubles in 1886.—In 1886, there were many strikes all over the country. There had come to exist here a class of men called anarchists, men who set themselves up against all law and all governments. The laboring men of the country had no sympathy with anarchists, but the anarchists seized upon labor troubles as an excuse for doing violent things. During a strike in Chicago, in 1886, the anarchists became very violent, and one day a dyna-

Riot in Chicago

mite bomb was thrown among a body of policemen, some of whom were killed by the explosion. A number of anarchists were tried, convicted, and some of them hanged.

Two Acts Concerning the Presidency.—The Constitution provides that when a President dies or becomes disabled, the Vice President shall succeed him in office, and permits Congress to provide for the succession in case both President and Vice President should die. Congress passed an act in 1886 providing that a member of the Cabinet shall succeed to the Presidency in such a case.

To guard against another such difficulty as that which had arisen in the Hayes-Tilden election in 1876, Congress, in 1887, passed an act requiring each State to decide for itself, and according to its own laws, who should be considered its properly chosen electors.

The Interstate Commerce Law.—In the same year a law was passed called the Interstate Commerce Act. Its main purpose was to prevent railroads engaged in carrying freight and passengers between the several States, from making unjust discriminations in favor of one man, or firm, or town, and against others. It provided, also, for the regulation of Interstate Commerce in other ways, and created a commission to carry out the law.

Chinese Immigration.—During the time when the Pacific railroads were building and afterwards, many Chinese laborers came to this country. They lived much more cheaply than Americans like to live, and were willing to work for much lower wages than Americans demand. They did not become citizens of the country. The immigration of these people soon came to be regarded as a danger, not only to American workingmen but to the country itself. There seemed to be no limit to their numbers, and the steamship companies brought them across the ocean for very little money. Repeated attempts were made to check this influx, and in 1881 the treaty with China was so modified as to permit the United States to suspend the immigration of Chinese laborers. In accordance with this stipulation,

Congress has, from time to time, passed laws which have practically stopped this immigration.

The Tariff Question.—As we have seen, the revenues of the country had become dangerously large, and the attempt made by the tariff act of 1883 to reduce them had failed of its purpose. This brought forward the whole question of revenue and protective tariffs. Some of the people contended that the time had come when we should repeal all tariff duties beyond those which were needed to provide for the expenses of the government, thus cheapening goods and avoiding the danger of a surplus of money in the Treasury. Others contended that this would be a wrong to our manufacturers and the working men. Their plan was to reduce the surplus revenues by repealing internal tax laws, and by other means, including the raising of tariff duties to such a height as to exclude many foreign goods entirely, which, up to that time, had yielded revenue to the government.

In his annual message to Congress in 1887, President Cleveland called attention to this subject, and urged the reduction of the tariff duties. The Democrats favored this policy, and the Republicans opposed it. It became the chief issue in the election of 1888.

Summary.—1. In 1884 Mr. Cleveland was elected President.

2. During his administration the Contract Labor Law and the laws forbidding Chinese immigration were passed. Laws were passed regulating presidential elections, and the succession to the Presidency in case of the death of President and Vice President. Still another important law regulated interstate commerce and prevented railroads from abusing their power.

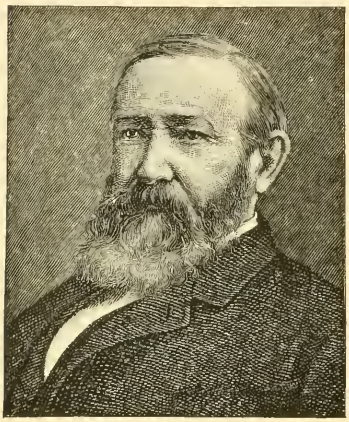
3. The most important question was how to prevent a surplus revenue. Mr. Cleveland urged a reduction of the tariff duties. The Republicans opposed this policy, and the Democrats favored it. It became the leading issue in the next election.

Collaterae Reading.—Andrews's "History of the Last Quarter Century of the United States," II., 91-95, 137-145, 114-117.

CHAPTER LVII

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION AND CLEVELAND'S SECOND TERM

The Election of 1888.—Cleveland was a candidate for re-election in 1888, but was defeated by the Republican candidate, Benjamin Harrison,* of Indiana.



Benjamin Harrison

Pensions.—The country was already paying pensions to four hundred and ninety thousand persons, chiefly on account of services rendered during the Civil War. In President Harrison's first message to Congress, he expressed himself as in favor of more liberal pensions to invalid soldiers and to the widows of soldiers. A bill was accordingly passed which raised the total to nine hundred and fifty thousand.

Silver Legislation.—At this time our silver mines were producing more and more silver every year, and the price of that metal was continually falling lower. Many persons thought that this fall in its price was due to the fact that the government did not coin enough of it into money. Many people in both parties shared this view and wanted the government to coin all the silver offered to it just as it did with gold. Others who thought that this would be dangerous were still willing to increase the amount of silver coined each month. Accordingly, in 1890, Congress passed an act requiring the Treasury to buy four million five hundred thousand ounces of silver in each month, and to issue Treasury notes in pay-

* For biography, see Appendix.

ment for it, these notes to stand on the same footing with the greenbacks, so far as paying debts with them was concerned. This act, as we shall presently see, failed to satisfy the silver men on the one hand, and threatened financial trouble on the other. Three years later it was repealed with the consent of men in both parties.

The McKinley Tariff.—In 1890, a new tariff bill, framed by William McKinley,* of Ohio, was enacted. It increased the duties on such articles as are manufactured in the United States, in order to lessen their importation, and thus decrease revenue while protecting American manufacturers. Still further to reduce revenues it lowered or abolished the duties on many articles such as are not made in this country. Finally, it gave to the President authority to regulate certain of the duties on the principle of what is called reciprocity; that is to say, it authorized him to lower the duties on goods imported from countries which granted like favors to our products, and to charge duties on articles that had been left on the free list whenever the country from which they came put unreasonable duties on our products.

New States and the Census.—Six new States came into the Union during Harrison's adminstration. North Dakota and South Dakota, November 2, 1889; Montana, November 8, 1889; Washington, November 11, 1889; Idaho, July 3, 1890; and Wyoming, July 10, 1890. The two Dakotas, with the adjoining State of Minnesota, constitute one of the greatest wheat-growing regions of the world. They had been rapidly filling up with immigrants from the older States and with energetic farmers from the Scandinavian countries. Washington, too, is a rich agricultural State. The other three States are occupied chiefly by mines and great cattle ranches. By the census of 1890 the population of the country was found to be 62,620,000.

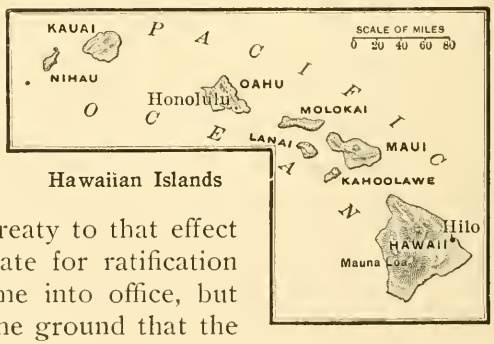
The People's Party.—There was at this time a great deal of discontent among various classes of the people. There were people who wanted the government to issue more

* For biography, see Appendix.

greenbacks. There were others who wanted the government to coin silver without limit, and without regard to the great decline which had occurred in the price of that metal. There were still others who wanted the government to own all the railroads and the telegraph and telephone lines, and others still who had various plans which they believed would better the condition of the people. All these elements were gradually brought together into a new party called the People's Party, and later the Populists.

The Election of 1892.—The chief question before the country in 1892 was that of the tariff. The Republicans nominated Harrison for reëlection, and declared themselves in favor of continuing and strengthening the McKinley tariff. The Democrats nominated Cleveland for the third time, and declared themselves in favor of a tariff for revenue only. The Populists nominated James Weaver, of Iowa, and declared in favor of free silver and the other changes above indicated. Cleveland was elected, but the People's Party had by this time become strong enough to secure twenty-two of the electoral votes.

Foreign Affairs under Cleveland.—A revolution broke out in the Hawaiian Islands in 1893, and the queen was deposed. A provisional government was set up, and steps were taken to secure the annexation of the islands to the United States. A treaty to that effect was before the Senate for ratification when Cleveland came into office, but he withdrew it on the ground that the revolution in Hawaii had been largely helped by American sailors and marines.



Hawaiian Islands

The United States had bought Alaska chiefly for the sake of the profit to be made by catching seals on some islands

in Bering Sea near its coasts. The seals go to these islands every year for a time. But on their way back and forth they cross a stretch of open sea which is free to all nations. In 1886 Canadian sealing vessels began to kill the seals in the open sea, and there was danger that they might in this way exterminate them. A dispute arose between Great Britain and the United States over this question, and in 1893 it was decided by arbitration.

Another dispute with Great Britain, which seemed for a time to threaten war, arose in connection with the boundary line between the South American Republic of Venezuela and the British province of Guiana, lying along side it. Great Britain having refused to submit the question between herself and Venezuela to arbitration, President Cleveland sent a special message to Congress in 1895, urging that the United States should appoint a commission to decide the true boundary line, and should insist upon the rights of Venezuela. He held that under the Monroe Doctrine it was the duty of the United States to do this. There was much excitement in both countries for a time, but in 1896 the matter was settled by negotiation.

The Chicago Exposition. — In 1893 there was held at Chicago a great World's Fair, called the Columbian Exposition, to celebrate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. The buildings were dedicated in 1892, which was the four hundredth year, but the Fair did not open until the spring of 1893.

The Panic of 1893 and the Repeal of the Silver Law.—In 1893 there occurred a financial panic which, like former panics, was the result of too much speculation, and of another cause. The law of 1890 compelling the government to buy a great mass of silver every month, and to issue Treasury notes in payment for it, was piling up a useless hoard of metal in the Treasury and steadily increasing the paper currency which the government was bound by law to redeem in coin, although the metal in a silver dollar was worth only fifty cents. So much gold went out of the Treas-

ury under these conditions that in April only ninety-seven million dollars in gold was left there, while by general agreement it had been decided that there must never be less than one hundred million dollars kept on hand by way of making sure that all Treasury notes should be redeemed whenever presented. The alarm was great, and President Cleveland called a special session of Congress to meet in August and deal with the difficulty. By that time the leaders of both parties in Congress had come to regard the system of dealing with silver as a source of great danger, and in response to Cleveland's suggestion Congress repealed the law of 1890.

The Wilson Tariff Bill.—The McKinley tariff law did not satisfy even those who had enacted it. It was their purpose, had they carried the election of 1892, themselves to change it in important particulars. As the Democrats had elected their candidate for President, and were in control of the House of Representatives, they planned to make a radical change and to enact a tariff law upon quite different principles. To that end a new tariff bill was framed by William L. Wilson, chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, and introduced into the House. It was not by any means such a bill as the leading Democrats in Congress and the country desired. It retained far more of the protective duties than they wished. But as the Democrats in Congress were themselves divided in opinion with regard to such matters, the bill as introduced was a compromise. It was afterwards still further amended until when it passed it made only two important changes in our tax laws. It put raw wool on the free list for one thing, and for another it imposed a tax of two cents in the dollar on all incomes of more than four thousand dollars. This income-tax provision was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court and never went into effect.

A New State.—One new State, Utah, was admitted during this term, on January 4, 1896. This brought the total number of States up to forty-five. Utah had long been popu-

lous enough for Statehood, but the Mormons, who constituted a majority of the people there, advocated polygamy and practised it. It was not until they agreed to abandon it and forbid it by their State constitution that the American people consented to let that Territory become a State.

Summary.—1. During Harrison's administration laws were passed which nearly doubled the number of persons entitled to pensions from the government. A new tariff bill, framed by William McKinley, of Ohio, was enacted. It increased the protective duties and provided for reciprocity. A bill was passed also requiring the government to buy four and a half million ounces of silver each month and to issue Treasury notes in payment for it.

2. In the election of 1892 the chief question was that of the tariff. Harrison was nominated for reëlection, but was defeated by Cleveland, the Democratic candidate.

3. A serious panic occurred in 1893, which was due in part to the effects of the silver purchase law passed in 1890. A special session of Congress was called, which repealed that law.

4. During Cleveland's administration the Wilson Tariff Bill was passed.

5. The revolution in Hawaii, the controversy between England and this country over the Alaskan fisheries, and a dispute with England concerning the boundary of Venezuela were the principal foreign matters dealt with during Cleveland's second term.

6. During the summer of 1893 a great World's Fair was held in Chicago to celebrate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America.

Collateral Reading.—Andrews's "History of the Last Quarter Century of the United States," II., 158, 159, 215-219, 303-308, 310-318, 349-369.

CHAPTER LVIII

BEGINNING OF McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION

Election of 1896.—In the election of 1896 the chief question at issue was what should be done about silver. The repeal of the Silver Purchase Act had cut off the silver-mine owners from a market for four million five hundred thousand ounces of their product every month. Several efforts

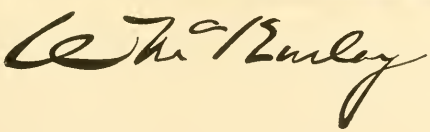
had been made in Congress to pass a law providing that the government should coin into money all the silver that might be offered to it at the ratio of sixteen to one—that is to say, that it should put sixteen times as much silver into a silver dollar as it put of gold into a gold dollar.

At the price at which silver then sold the metal in a silver dollar would have been worth, as metal, only about half a dollar, but the silver men contended that if the government should adopt their plan of coining it freely the price would rise until the silver dollars would in themselves be worth as much as gold dollars.

The Republican party had formerly been divided on this question just as the Democratic party was. But by 1896 the Republicans had made up their minds to stand out against any further coinage of silver, and many Democrats held a similar view. The Republican convention nominated William McKinley, of Ohio, for President. In its platform the party declared itself to be in favor of keeping gold as the only standard of money in this country, and "opposed to the free coinage of silver except by international agreement." Most of the delegates from the silver-mining States and others at once withdrew from the party.

The Democratic convention in July nominated William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, for President, and declared itself in favor of "the free and unlimited coinage of both silver and gold at the present legal ratio of sixteen to one without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation."

A great many Democrats throughout the country, but especially in the Eastern States, refused to stand upon this platform. Some of them held a convention at Indianapolis, nominated John M. Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and declared themselves opposed to free coinage, and in favor of the gold standard. These called themselves National Democrats. They were opposed to the Republicans on questions of tariff and other policies, but in this election they regarded the silver question as more important than all others. A still larger number of Democrats, fearing the election of



Bryan and the adoption of a free silver policy, decided to vote for the Republican candidate, McKinley.

The Populists a little later nominated Bryan for President and Thomas E. Watson for Vice President. The Democrats had nominated Arthur E. Sewall, of Maine, for the second place. McKinley was elected by a large majority of electoral votes. The Republicans at the same time secured a majority in the Senate and in the House of Representatives.

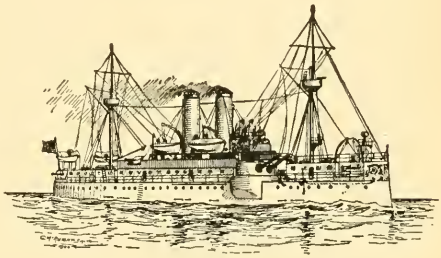
The Dingley Tariff Bill.—The necessity of doing something to remedy evils in the tariff laws was so great that President McKinley called a special session of Congress, and in June, 1897, it passed a new tariff law called the Dingley Tariff, from the name of the chairman of the committee that framed it. It increased the duties on certain imports, and levied duties on some things which had been admitted free under the Wilson law. It was in a high degree protective.

Conditions in Cuba.—In the early years of the nineteenth century Spain had lost all her American possessions except Cuba, Porto Rico, and some smaller islands lying near them. Spain governed Cuba very harshly, and for many years there had been repeated insurrections and wars in the island, one of which had lasted for ten years. These disturbances greatly injured the trade of the United States, and the people of our country were much concerned over the oppression of an island which lay so near our coast. Our government frequently remonstrated with Spain, but to no effect. We several times tried to buy Cuba, but Spain would not sell.

In 1895 another rebellion broke out in the island and a native government was set up there. Between this native government and the Spanish authorities there was constant war, resulting in much bloodshed and the destruction of much property. In order to crush this rebellion the Spanish commander, General Weyler, compelled all the farmers to leave their homes and come with their families to live in the towns, where he provided no food or clothing for

them, and where they died by thousands. Our government protested against this, and Weyler was removed, but matters grew no better.

The Destruction of the "Maine."—All these things aroused sympathy for the Cubans among the American people. Finally, our government sent the battleship "Maine" on a friendly visit to the harbor of Havana. On the night of February 15, 1898, the "Maine" was blown up in that harbor by a mine, and two of her officers and two hundred and sixty-four of her crew were killed. Many people suspected that this thing had been done with the knowledge or consent of Spanish officials, but the crime could not be fastened upon any one. The people of the United States were greatly excited over the outrage, and, foreseeing that war with Spain was probably drawing near, Congress appropriated fifty million dollars with which to put our country into a state of defense.



The "Maine"

The Approach of War.—On April 11 President McKinley sent a special message to Congress on the subject of Cuba. He declared that conditions there were intolerable to the United States, and that the only way in which they could be bettered was by compelling a peace in the islands. He said that in the name of humanity and civilization the war in Cuba must stop, and he asked from Congress authority to

Cuba and Porto Rico

use the military and naval forces of the United States in bringing about peace.

In response to this message Congress passed a resolution authorizing the President to stop the war in Cuba, and, if necessary, to use the army and navy for that purpose. The resolution also demanded that Spain should at once give up its authority in Cuba and withdraw its land and naval forces from that island. The resolution gave Spain five days in which to reply. Without waiting for the five days to pass Spain instantly dismissed the United States minister at Madrid. This was practically a declaration of war.

William T. Sampson

The President at once proclaimed a blockade of the Cuban coast, and sent Commodore Sampson with a fleet to enforce it. A "flying squadron" under Commodore Schley was held at Hampton Roads (near Norfolk) to guard our coast cities if an attack should be made upon them. President McKinley issued a call for one hundred and twenty-five thousand volunteers, and they quickly responded.

Winfield S. Schley

In the meantime a Spanish fleet commanded by Admiral Cervera was at the Cape Verde Islands, and its destination was not known. Scouting boats, tugs, and yachts were sent out to watch for its appearance, and on April 25 Congress declared that war between Spain and the United States had existed since April 21st.

Summary.—1. In the election of 1896 the silver question was the main issue. The Republicans declared against the policy of coining

silver, while the Democrats favored it. In the election McKinley, the Republican candidate, was chosen.

2. A new tariff bill was passed early in McKinley's term. It was strongly protective.

3. Spain having failed to suppress a rebellion in Cuba in spite of cruel measures, and the American battle ship "Maine" having been blown up in the harbor of Havana, the President asked Congress for authority to interfere and end the Cuban war. Congress granted him the authority asked, and Spain promptly dismissed the American Minister at Madrid, thus practically declaring war.

4. Our government at once sent a fleet to blockade Cuba, and stationed another on our own coasts to guard them. On April 25 Congress formally declared war.

Collateral Reading.—Lodge's "The War with Spain," 27-36.

CHAPTER LIX

THE SPANISH WAR

The Battle of Manila Bay.—Great Britain declared her neutrality on the 24th of April. The Asiatic squadron of our navy was lying at that time at the British port of Hong Kong, China. Under the laws of nations Commodore George Dewey,* who commanded it, must leave Hong Kong with his ships in twenty-four hours. He had already been ordered to go to Manila as soon as war should be declared and destroy the Spanish fleet stationed there. Adopting the methods which he had learned from Farragut, under whom he had served at Mobile, Dewey disregarded the danger of mines and torpedoes, and steamed straight into Manila Bay at daybreak on Sunday morning, May 1. He at once opened fire on the Spanish fleet and destroyed it without the loss of a single man on any one of his own ships.

George Dewey

* For biography, see Appendix.

In recognition of this exploit Dewey was made rear admiral, and afterwards admiral, of the navy.

In the West Indies — Pursuing Cervera.—Cervera's fleet, from the Cape Verde Islands, appeared off the island of Martinique, May 11. Sampson's squadron was ordered to the eastern end of Cuba, and Schley's to the western end, to stop Cervera on his way to Havana. Being short of water and provisions, Cervera entered the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. The entrance is narrow and winding, and vessels lying within the harbor can not be seen from the outside. Sampson and Schley were ordered to Santiago to blockade the port. They could not enter the harbor because it was strewn with mines and torpedoes, and no attack could be made until land forces should arrive. Meantime the work of the fleet was to prevent Cervera from escaping.

The Philippines

Hobson's Exploit. — To make sure of this, Lieutenant Hobson, a young Alabamian in the navy, undertook the dangerous task of sinking the coal ship "Merrimac" across the narrow entrance of the harbor. With seven men for crew he steamed in before daybreak on June 3, and under the fire of the enemy sank his ship at a point where the channel was very narrow. But as the ship's steering gear was destroyed by a shot, Hobson could not place her in exactly the position he intended. It was still possible for the Spanish ships to slip by her. Hobson and his men floated away on a raft under a terrific fire, and were picked up by Admiral Cervera and made prisoners of war.

Shafter's Campaign.—A little army under General Wil-

liam R. Shafter landed near Santiago on June 23. Advancing toward Santiago, some of the troops under General Joseph Wheeler and General Young met the Spaniards on the 24th at Las Guasimas and in a skirmish defeated them. Two battalions of the First Volunteer Cavalry, or Roosevelt Rough Riders, were engaged in this affair.

William R. Shafter

El Caney.—A Spanish line about seven miles long guarded Santiago on the east. It extended from Aguadoras on the south to El Caney on the north, and the strongest point in it was at San Juan Hill. The Americans attacked El Caney at six o'clock in the morning of July 1, expecting to carry it easily, and then unite with the force on their left and help in taking San Juan Hill. But the Spanish at El Caney resisted so stubbornly that the place was not taken until late in the day.

San Juan Hill.—The troops before San Juan had been ordered to begin their attack as soon as they heard the guns at El Caney. As they advanced they were exposed to the bullets of sharpshooters firing from behind trees, as well as to the artillery fire of the Spaniards. There was much confusion, and the rapidly succeeding orders were conflicting. But the courage of the officers and men saved the day in spite of grievous errors in the plan of battle. Colonel Roosevelt,* with his Rough Riders, and a colored regiment, distinguished themselves by a gallant assault. A series of sudden charges finally put the enemy to flight after six hours of hard fighting. On the next day the Spaniards

A Rough Rider

* For biography, see Appendix.

tried to recover the hill by a series of assaults which lasted from five o'clock in the morning until nine o'clock at night, but they were repulsed.

The Destruction of Cervera's Fleet.—The fall of Santiago was now certain, and Cervera with his ships must leave the harbor at once or share the fate of the city. On the morning of July 3 the Spanish fleet crept out of the harbor and turned westward in the hope of escaping. The American ships closed in and gave chase, firing so rapidly and with such precision of aim that the Spaniards were in many cases driven from their guns. Within four hours the Spanish fleet was completely destroyed. More than five hundred of its men were killed and wounded, and many more were drowned. Cervera and nearly eighteen hundred officers and men were captured.

Nelson A. Miles

Rear Admiral Sampson, in his flagship, the "New York," was about seven miles away when the battle began. He had gone to hold a conference with General Shafter, but when he heard the firing he turned swiftly about to join the battle. Santiago, with about twenty-two thousand Spanish troops, surrendered to Shafter July 17.

The Campaign in Porto Rico.—General Miles, the general in chief of the army, had arrived in Cuba with additional troops about a week before the occupation of Santiago. When it was seen that his force would not be needed there he proceeded with it to seize the island of Porto Rico. The people there received him gladly, while the Spanish soldiers retreated, making a very slight show of resistance.

The Treaty of Peace.—After the loss of her two fleets and the fall of Santiago, Spain asked for terms of peace. In the

protocol of August 12, 1898, she gave up all claim to Cuba, ceded to us Porto Rico and the other Spanish islands in the West Indies, and agreed to give us also any island we might select in the Ladrones, a Pacific Island group. The United States was to occupy Manila until a treaty of peace should determine the disposition of the Philippines; but before the news of the protocol had reached the Philippines Manila was captured through the joint operations of Dewey's ships and an army commanded by General Wesley Merritt. When the final treaty was made Spain ceded to the United States the island of Guam, in the Ladrones, and the whole of the Philippine group, for which this country paid her twenty million dollars.

The Annexation of Hawaii.—At the request of the republic of Hawaii that group of islands was annexed to the United States July 7, 1898. Two years later a Territorial form of government was established in the islands.

Summary.—1. On the 1st of May, 1898, Commodore Dewey, with an American fleet, destroyed the Spanish squadron in the harbor of Manila.

2 Another Spanish fleet, under Admiral Cervera, entered the harbor of Santiago, Cuba, and was blockaded there by American warships under Sampson and Schley.

3. To perfect the blockade, Lieutenant Hobson, with a crew of seven men, at great risk, sank the collier "Merrimac" across the channel of the harbor June 3.

4. On June 23 troops under Shafter landed near Santiago, advanced toward that city, and on July 1 carried El Caney and San Juan Hill.

5. Cervera's fleet tried to escape from the harbor of Santiago on July 3 and was promptly destroyed by the squadron under Sampson and Schley.

6. General Miles, with an army, seized upon Porto Rico, and the war was practically over. By the treaty ending it Spain gave up her claim to Cuba, and ceded to the United States Porto Rico and her other West India islands, the island of Guam in the Pacific, and the Philippine Islands.

7. The Hawaiian Islands were annexed to the United States July 7, 1898.

Collateral Reading.—(The battle of Manila Bay to the close of the war.) Lodge's "The War with Spain," 47-61, 110-151.

C. Chelyuskin
ARCTIC OCEAN
Pt. Barrow
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
ARCTIC CIRCLE
SIBERIA
Bering Sea
Sea of Okhotsk
ALEUTIAN IS.
ALASKA
Nome
KODIAK I.
Sitka
QUEEN CHARLOTTE IS.
VANCOUVER I.
Portland
Baffin Bay
GREENLAND
BAFFIN LAND
Davis Strait
Hudson Bay
CANADA
Winnipeg
Minneapolis
Chicago
Boston
NEWFOUNDLAND
UNITED STATES
San Francisco
Denver
St. Louis
New York
Philadelphia
Washington
Savannah
New Orleans
Gulf of Mexico
BAHAMAS
MEXICO
Havana
Caribbean Sea
PORTO RICO (U.S.)
MARTINIQUE
CEN. AMERICA
Panama
PANAMA CANAL ZONE
COL.
GUIANA
Para
BRAZIL
Lima
PERU
BOL.
Rio de Janeiro
Valparaiso
CHILE
ARGENTINA
Buenos Aires
Str. of Magellan
Cape Horn
FALKLAND IS.
SOUTH GEORGIA
TRISTAN DA CUNHA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ICELAND
ARCTIC CIRCLE
JAN MAYEN I.
NOVA ZEMBLA
North C.
SPITZBERGEN
FRANZ JOSEF LAND
White Sea
Barents Sea
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
RUSSIA
St. Petersburg
Moscow
Omsk
Aral Sea
RUSSIAN TURKESTAN
Tashkend
Caspian Sea
Tabreez
PERSIA
AF.
TIBET
BAL.
INDIA
Bombay
Calcutta
Madras
Arabian Sea
CEYLON
BRITISH ISLES
London
North Sea
Berlin
Paris
FRANCE
Vienna
AUS.-HUNG.
Black Sea
Constantinople
Mediterranean Sea
Madrid
PORT.
SPAIN
Algiers
ALGERIA
MOR.
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS.
TROPIC OF CANCER
CAPE VERDE IS.
C. Verde
Monrovia
SAHARA
Timbuktu
NIGERIA
ABYSS.
ARABIA
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
EGYPT
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
ASCENSION I.
ST. HELENA I.
Loanda
ANGOLA
KONGO STATE
Mozambique
MADAGASCAR
MAURITIUS
Zanzibar
SEYCHELLES
Cape Town
CAPE COLONY
Cape of Good Hope
KERGUELEN I.
INDIAN OCEAN
MIDWAY IS. (U.S.)
WAKE I. (U.S.)
HAWAIIAN IS. (U.S.)
Honolulu
GUAM (U.S.)
PHILIPPINE IS. (U.S.)
Manila
LADRONE IS. (Ger.)
MARSHALL IS.
CAROLINE IS.
GILBERT IS.
FANNING I.
EQUATOR
GALAPAGOS IS.
MARQUESAS IS.
SAMOA IS.
TUTUILA (U.S.)
PAUMOTU IS.
SOCIETY IS.
TAHITI
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
EASTER I.
TONGA IS.
COOK IS.
FIJI IS.
NEW HEBRIDES
NEW CALEDONIA
LOYALTY IS.
SANTA CRUZ IS.
SOLOMON IS.
BISMARCK ARCH.
NEW GUINEA
CERAM
BORNEO
CELEBES
JAVA
SUMATRA
Batavia
Singapore
Bangkok
Saigon
INDIA
Rangoon
CHINA
Canton
Hong Kong
Yellow Sea
Japan
Sea of Japan
Vladivostok
Amur
MANCHURIA
MONGOLIA
CHINESE EMPIRE
TURKESTAN
Gobi Desert
Lake Baikal
Irkutsk
Yokohama
Tokyo
Osaka
KOREA
Great Wall of China
TROPIC OF CANCER
KERMADEC IS.
NEW ZEALAND
NEW Wellington
CHATHAM I.
Brisbane
Sydney
Melbourne
Adelaide
Perth
TASMANIA
WEST. AUS.
SOUTH AUS.
QUEENSLAND
NEW SOUTH WALES
VIC.
THE UNITED STATES
AND ITS
OUTLYING POSSESSIONS
L.L. POATES, ENGR., N.Y.
120 150 180 Longitude 150 West 120 from 90 Greenwich 60 30 0 Longitude 30 East 60
60 30 0 30 60

CHAPTER LX

THE WAR AND ITS RESULTS

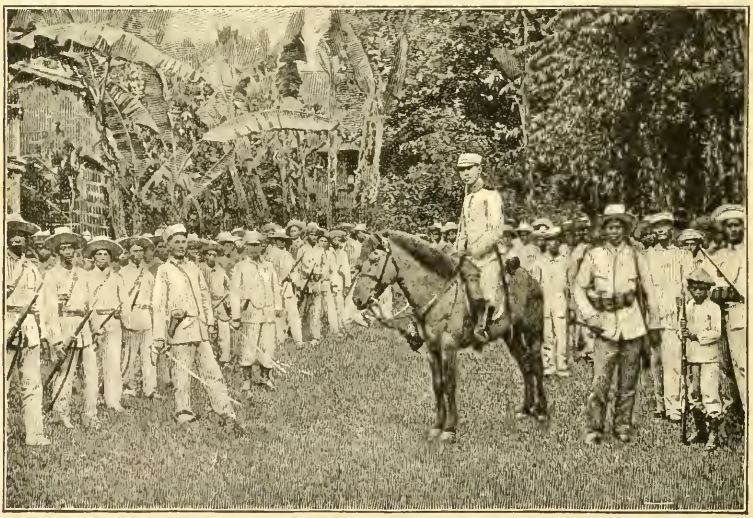
The Cost of the War.—Besides the fifty million dollars appropriated by Congress as a defense fund, the government issued and sold two hundred million dollars in bonds, and raised still further revenues with which to meet the cost of the war by new taxes. It taxed beer, tea, and legacies. It also required government stamps on bank checks, telegraph messages, express companies' receipts, business documents, and certain articles of merchandise. These taxes were reduced and many of them abolished entirely on July 1, 1901.

The War a Common Interest.—This war did much to increase good feeling between the North and the South. For more than a third of a century the two sections, having nothing now to quarrel about, had been drawing nearer and nearer together in feeling. Their interests were the same, and their business and social relations constantly brought them into friendly intercourse with each other. When Spain declared war upon the country all the people were of one mind and one purpose, to defend the flag and the nation. Alabama gave to the cause in Lieutenant Hobson a hero of whom the whole country is proud. Roosevelt's Rough Riders, made up of men from North, East, South, and West, excited enthusiasm in all quarters. George Dewey and Commodore Sampson proved by their deeds that the prowess of the North in past years had known no diminution. Commodore Schley, on the other hand, was a Southerner, and General Joseph Wheeler, who so greatly distinguished himself as a fighter, brought to the country a military skill which he had acquired as a general in the Confederate army.

Porto Rico.—The United States took formal possession of Porto Rico October 18, 1898, and the American flag was

raised over its capital city, San Juan. A military government was established, and the work of improving the social, educational, and industrial condition of the people was begun. Civil government was established in the island in 1900.

Cuba after the War.—Cuba was finally evacuated by the Spaniards in January, 1899. A military government was established by the United States for the purpose of restoring order and managing the affairs of the island until a government of their own could be established by the people of Cuba. While the United States continued to govern the island, the policy followed was to put Cubans into positions of responsibility wherever it could be done safely. A caucus of Cuban leaders was called to lay the foundation for a constitutional convention. The convention, composed of representative Cubans, met on November 5, 1900, and by February 21, 1901, it had completed the work of framing a Constitution. After some discussion between our government and the Cuban convention the Constitution was approved,

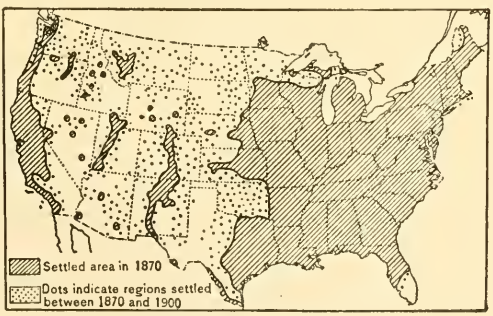


Insurgent Filipinos

Elwell S. Otis

an election was held for president, vice president, and members of Congress, and in 1902 the government of the republic of Cuba came into being.

The Philippines.—The people of the Philippine Islands were in revolt against Spain at the time when the Islands were ceded to the United States. Emilio Aguinaldo, the leader of the rebels, was at the head of a native government. When the islands were ceded to this country the Filipinos insisted that the United States should recognize their independence; and this being refused, a rebellion broke out and our troops in Manila were attacked by the natives on February 4, 1899. The Filipinos were quickly and completely routed. General Otis, who was in command, sent expeditions against every point where the natives made a stand, and many engagements occurred. The Americans were everywhere victorious, and the rebellion seemed to be broken, but Aguinaldo still insisted upon the recognition of his government, and with a few followers he fled to the mountains and carried on an annoying guerrilla warfare against the Americans. In March, 1901, General Funston captured Aguinaldo, and in June of that year President McKinley issued an order establishing civil government in the islands.



Settled area in 1900

The Population.—By the census of 1900 the population of the main body of the United States was found to be 75,994,-

000; and with Alaska, the Philippines, Porto Rico, and other outlying possessions the total population was 84,233,000.

Summary.—1. The war with Spain cost the United States two or three hundred million dollars. It secured the freedom of Cuba and the annexation to this country of Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines. It also brought out strongly the friendship and fellowship of the Northern and Southern people of the United States.

2. Porto Rico was formally annexed in 1898, and civil government was established there in 1900.

3. The United States maintained a military government in Cuba until the people of that island could frame a satisfactory government for themselves. This they did, and the Republic of Cuba took its place among the nations of the earth in the spring of 1902.

4. In the Philippines the natives, or a part of them, resisted American authority, and a guerrilla war was carried on until the Filipino leader Aguinaldo was captured in March, 1901. In June of that year civil government was established in the islands.

Collateral Reading.—Lodge's "The War with Spain," 233-236.

CHAPTER LXI

INVENTION AND INDUSTRY IN THE LAST HALF OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

The End of the Century.—The last ten years of the nineteenth century were the most prosperous decade that the country had known, not only in material ways, but in education, in culture, and in all else that fits a people to bear their proper part in the work of the world.

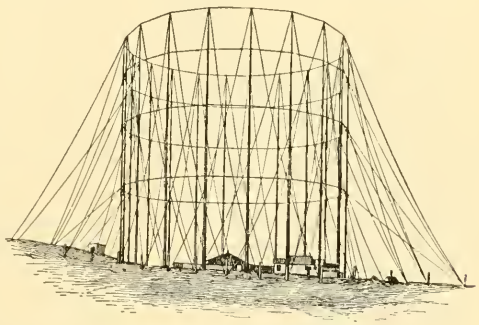
From thirteen States, with a population of less than four millions in 1790, the Republic had expanded to forty-five States, with a population of over seventy-five millions.

A Wonderful Half Century.—The last half of the nineteenth century saw greater advances perhaps than any other like period in history in the matters of invention and

industrial progress. Invention and discovery during that time completely revolutionized the industries of the world, and this country had the largest share of all in the progress thus made.

Electrical Inventions.—Up to 1850 almost the only general use made of electricity was in the telegraph. From the beginning its inventor, Morse, experimented in the hope of finding a way to lay telegraph lines across the seas. He succeeded only in showing that this might some day be possible. During the fifties, Cyrus W. Field.* of New York, set himself to work to make ocean telegraphy a fact. After several failures, a new cable was laid in 1866, which worked perfectly, and the great problem of uniting the continents by telegraph under the sea was solved.

The Telephone.—The telephone was invented by Alexander Graham Bell, and was first exhibited at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876. This was the greatest of all electrical inventions since the telegraph, and, like the telegraph, it was the work of an American. The beginning of the twentieth century saw a still greater marvel in the system by which messages can be sent great distances without connecting wires.



Wireless-telegraph station

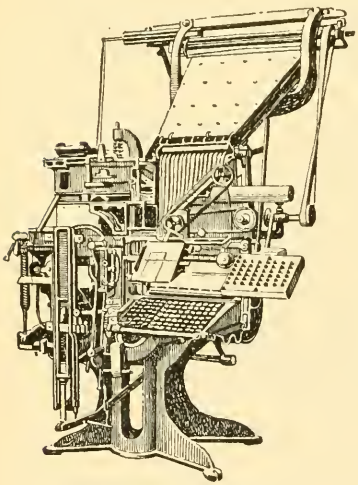
Electric Lights.—Long years of experiment were necessary before electric lights could be produced cheaply enough for general use. Success in these endeavors was achieved about 1870, and from that time on electric lighting, both public and private, has become more and more general. To Thomas A. Edison * and some other Amer-

* For biography, see Appendix.

icans must be given the credit of much that was done toward making such light practicable.

Electric Cars.—The first practical electric cars in the world were used in Richmond, Virginia, in 1888. Since then electricity has almost entirely displaced the horse as a motive power for street cars.

These are the principal electric inventions of the last half century, but in many hundreds of other ways the skill of our electricians has made electricity the servant of man, and it is the opinion of those most competent to judge that in this department of practical science we are only at the beginning of development.



Typesetting machine

Typewriters.—Another great American invention belonging to the last half of the nineteenth century was the typewriting machine. The first successful machine of the kind was invented by Sholes and Glidden in 1868. The Remington Company undertook its manufacture in 1874, and after that it grew at first slowly and afterwards very rapidly into general use.

Typesetting Machines.—Until near the end of the nineteenth century all printing matter had to be "set up" with movable types by hand. After many efforts to invent a machine which would successfully set type, the end was achieved by combining many devices in the linotype machine. In using this machine the printer merely touches buttons on a keyboard like that of a typewriter. The speed and cheapness of this method have made the great daily newspaper of our day possible.

Agricultural Implements.—Mention has already been made of the reaper. Other devices for helping the farmer in his

work and enabling one man to do the work of many are the thrashing machine, various kinds of rakes, gang plows, steam plows, hay presses, cotton compressing machines, and the like. These have grown in answer to a need. As our manufactures have increased, and as our commercial business has been enlarged, more and more people have been needed in the cities and manufacturing towns. These have been drawn largely from the country, and their places on the farm have been taken in a great degree by machines.

Cotton.—About two-thirds of all the cotton used in the world is produced in the United States.

Until 1889 Great Britain was the leading nation in the manufacture of raw cotton into fabrics, but in that year the United States passed the older country in the amount of cotton manufactured. In this country New England has always led in cotton manufacturing, but of recent years the South has begun to rival that section in this industry.

Many important inventions and improvements in machinery for manufacturing cotton have been made in this country. In order to keep pace with these improvements the mill owners have often been forced to discard machinery long before it was worn out, and use more improved devices in its stead.

By-products of Cotton.—Originally the cotton plant was cultivated only for the fiber that surrounds the seeds. Since 1855 the manufacture of a valuable oil from cotton seed has been a successful and rapidly growing industry. The fiber of the stalk of the cotton plant is also now turned to account in making coarse baggings. Valuable dyes are extracted from the root of the plant and from the oil of the seed, while an important food for cattle is made of what is left of the seeds after extracting the oil.

Iron.—Ours is to-day the leading country in the production of iron and steel, and it consumes a larger amount of both in the manufacture of machinery and other things than any other country. Steel manufacturing with us had its great beginning in 1864, when the Bessemer process was intro-

duced. A newer method of making steel, called the Siemens open-hearth process, is now largely in use.

The Great Writers of Our Country.—It would require many pages to hold even a list of those American authors who have achieved distinction. We can mention only the few foremost writers in the several departments.

The most conspicuous writers who appeared during the first third of the nineteenth century were Bryant,* Dana, Drake, and Halleck in poetry, Washington Irving and Cooper in polite literature and fiction, Noah Webster as a lexicographer, and Audubon * as a naturalist. During the next twenty years several of the most famous of all American writers appeared. These included Longfellow,* Whittier, Holmes, Poe,* and Hawthorne in poetry, fiction, and general literature, Bancroft,* Motley, Parkman,* and Prescott as great original historical writers, and Gray in botany. These continued to enrich literature from year to year until nearly our own time. A little later came Emerson * and Lowell, whose influence upon thought will permanently endure.

The men named were the great leaders. A score of others, only a little less prominent, might be mentioned without including any living author in the list.

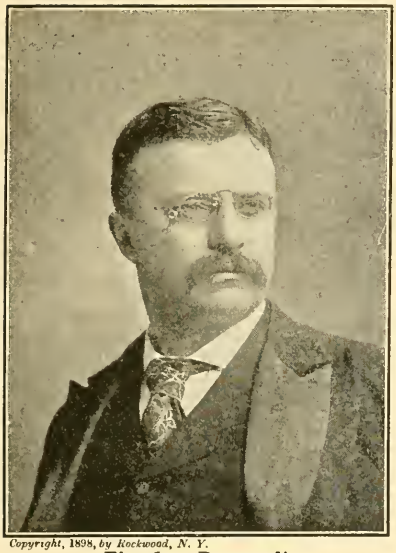
Collateral Reading.—(Industrial) Andrews's "History of the United States," II., 284-291; (Southern Progress since the War) Andrews's "History of the Last Quarter Century of the United States," II., 367-380; (Progress of the West, and Material Progress Generally) Andrews's "History of the United States," II., 66-74, 255-259.

CHAPTER LXII

SOME LATER EVENTS

The Election of 1900.—In the election of 1900 President McKinley was renominated by the Republicans, and Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, was their candidate for Vice

* For biography, see Appendix.



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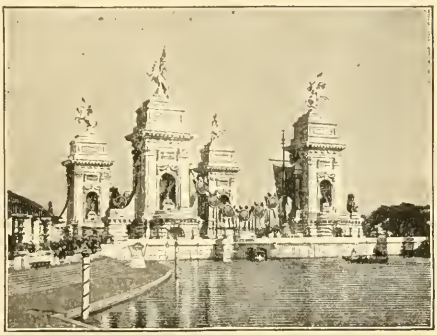
Theodore Roosevelt

President. The platform of that party, like that of 1896, declared for gold as the sole standard of money and against the free and unlimited coinage of silver.

The Democratic convention again nominated William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, for President, and at his demand again declared itself in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at the ratio of sixteen to one. The platform declared also that the "paramount issue" of the campaign was that of "imperialism;" that is to say, the party declared itself opposed to the acquisition of such territory as the Philippine Islands, and to the course of our government in refusing to recognize the Filipino republic and using troops to suppress the insurrection there. But the question of silver constituted the real issue of the contest. Those Democrats who had before refused to vote for Bryan and free silver coinage still refused in the main, and Mr. McKinley was elected by a larger electoral majority than before.

The Pan-American Exposition.—In 1901 a great World's Fair was held at Buffalo, New York, called the Pan-American Exposition.



Triumphal Bridge, Pan-American Exposition

It was intended to exhibit the achievements of the western hemisphere during the nineteenth century. President McKinley visited this exposition in September, and on the 6th of that month a reception was held in his honor in the Temple of Music. As he stood shaking hands with the people as they passed, a young man with his right hand wrapped in a handkerchief came up, and the President reached out to greet him. Suddenly there came two shots from a pistol concealed under the handkerchief, and McKinley fell, mortally wounded. After lingering for eight days the President died on September 14. On September 14, the day of President McKinley's death, Vice President Theodore Roosevelt took the oath of office and became President.

The Isthmian Canal.—The United States having decided to cut a canal across the isthmus which joins North and South America, it was found that the terms of an old treaty between this country and Great Britain stood in the way of the United States assuming control of such a canal. Secretary of State John Hay took up the matter and secured a treaty which removed this difficulty. The treaty was negotiated by Mr. Hay with the British Ambassador, Lord Pauncefote, and was signed on February 6, 1900. The Senate refused to ratify it without certain amendments, which England declined to accept. Mr. Hay persisted in his negotiations, and in December, 1901, a new treaty, satisfactory to both countries, was laid before the Senate, and soon afterwards ratified.

For a long time it was a question whether the canal should be cut across the Isthmus of Panama or farther north through Nicaragua. Toward the end of its session, in the summer of 1902, Congress authorized the President to purchase and complete the Panama canal, which a French company had begun, in case satisfactory title and control could be obtained. Colombia refused to ratify a treaty giving us control of the canal route. Thereupon the province of Panama seceded, and granted the canal strip to the United States on terms similar to those rejected

by Colombia; and in return the United States guaranteed the independence of Panama. The rights of the French company were bought for $40,000,000, and the work of completing the canal was begun in 1904.

Disturbances in China.—In 1900, in northern China, there was a widespread uprising against foreigners, led by members of the League of United Patriots, a secret society. The last word of the Chinese name of the society resembles a word meaning "fist." As the members held athletic contests, foreigners called them "Boxers." Christian missionaries and their native converts were murdered, and foreigners, including even ambassadors, were besieged in their reservation in Peking. The European powers, Japan, and the United States were obliged to send troops to Peking to protect their ambassadors and other foreigners, and to restore order. In the negotiations that followed, between the Chinese government and the foreign powers, Mr. Hay, representing the United States, exerted a powerful influence against the threatened partition of China, and in favor of equal trade privileges in China for all nations.

Coal Strikes.—The United Mine Workers of America organized branches among the anthracite miners of Pennsylvania in 1899, and thus became one of the most powerful labor unions in the country. The next year the anthracite miners struck for higher wages. The mine operators made some concessions and work was resumed. It was soon evident, however, that both parties were dissatisfied, the underlying cause being the desire for the recognition by the operators of the miners' union. Early in 1902 the anthracite miners struck again, demanding of the operators recognition of the union, higher wages, shorter hours, and other modifications of existing customs. Months passed, but neither party yielded. There was much rioting, accompanied by bloodshed and destruction of property. After long delay, the governor of Pennsylvania called out the militia to preserve order. Anthracite coal is used chiefly in the Eastern States, and as the winter approached, the local

supplies became exhausted, and there was an alarming prospect of a coal famine. To avert, if possible, this calamity, President Roosevelt offered his friendly services to bring about a settlement of the questions at issue. Both parties finally consented to abide by the decision of a commission to be appointed by the President. Pending this decision, work in the mines was resumed late in October. The award of the Commission, made the following March, was somewhat favorable to the miners, but did not grant all their demands.

The Election of 1904.—The Republicans in 1904 nominated Theodore Roosevelt for President, on a platform upholding the administration. The Democrats condemned the administration and nominated Judge Alton B. Parker, of New York; their platform was silent on the money question, but Parker upheld the gold standard. Roosevelt was elected by a very large majority.

Interstate Commerce.—In 1906 Congress passed several laws for regulating interstate commerce, and for maintaining the quality of goods manufactured anywhere for sale in other States. The Interstate Commerce Commission (p. 376) was given greater power to prevent discrimination in the service and charges of railroads, express companies, etc., and was even authorized to fix new freight and passenger rates in cases where the previous rates were found to be unjust or unreasonable. Three million dollars a year was appropriated to provide thorough inspection of slaughtering and meat-packing establishments. Severe penalties were imposed for carrying on interstate commerce in falsely stamped gold and silver ware, or in any adulterated or misbranded foods, drugs, medicines, or liquors.

Oklahoma.—In the same year an act was passed providing for the admission of the new State of Oklahoma. The western part of the old Indian Territory (p. 308) had been settled by white men (1889 and later), and organized as the Territory of Oklahoma (1890); the eastern part was still occupied chiefly by Indians. The act of 1906 provided that

the new State should include both regions. A constitution having been framed and adopted by the people of the new State, Oklahoma was admitted to the Union November 16, 1907.

The Election of 1908.—Both parties in 1908 declared for a revision of the tariff, and for other reforms. The Democrats for the third time nominated William J. Bryan for President. The Republicans nominated and elected William H. Taft, of Ohio.*

Special Session of Congress.—President Taft called a special session of Congress to revise the tariff. After nearly five months' deliberation, a new tariff act was passed, which reduced the duties on some articles and increased them on some other articles. An excise tax of 1 per cent. was laid on the net earnings of corporations in excess of $5,000 per year. Congress also proposed an amendment to the constitution giving Congress power to lay a tax on incomes. This amendment was ratified by the necessary number of States early in the year 1913.

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William H. Taft

Acts of 1910.—In the regular session of Congress, 1909–1910, several important acts were passed. The powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission were enlarged. An act was passed providing for the later admission of Arizona and New Mexico as States.

Population.—The census of 1910 showed 92,000,000 people in the main body of the United States.

* For biography, see Appendix.

Events of 1912.—The admission of New Mexico and Arizona early in 1912 made the number of States in the Union forty-eight. Congress proposed another amendment to the Constitution, providing for the election of Senators by the people instead of by the legislature in each State; this amendment was ratified by the necessary number of States in 1913. Differences arose between Congress and the President as to the tariff and other subjects of legislation, and President Taft vetoed several bills.

Woodrow Wilson

Differences arose in the Republican party between men of progressive and of conservative policies, and in the Republican convention of 1912 there was a close contest between them. When the conservatives secured control and renominated President Taft, the party was split. The Progressives organized a new party, declared for many reforms, and nominated Theodore Roosevelt, who had failed to secure the Republican nomination. Meanwhile the Democrats had nominated Woodrow Wilson,* on a platform calling for a reduction of the tariff and for various reforms. Wilson was elected by a very large majority of the electoral votes. Roosevelt received more votes than Taft.

Acts of Congress (1913–1914). — President Wilson called a special session of Congress to consider the tariff question. After long debates, a new tariff act was passed, in accordance with the President's recommendations.

* For biography, see Appendix.

It lowered the duties on many articles. To make up for the loss in revenue, a tax was levied on personal incomes in excess of $3,000 or $4,000 a year, and on the income of corporations, no matter how small. A new banking act created twelve federal reserve banks, with large powers to issue bank notes and to act as central banks for the ordinary banking institutions of the country. A Trade Commission was established to supervise corporations engaged in interstate commerce, with the exception of railroad companies, telegraph companies, and other common carriers which were already under the supervision of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

Panama Canal. — The year 1914 was marked by the completion of the Panama Canal, under the able management of Colonel George W. Goethals, the chief engineer in charge of the work.

Woman Suffrage. — The question of giving women the right to vote on equal terms with men was brought to an issue in many States. The first State or territory to grant equal suffrage was Wyoming (1869). About twenty-five years later, three neighboring States (Colorado, Idaho, Utah) followed her example. During 1910–1918 the same action was taken by the States of Washington, California, Arizona, Oregon, Kansas, Montana, Nevada, New York, Michigan, South Dakota, and Oklahoma, and by the territory of Alaska. In many other States women have long been permitted to vote in school elections, and in several they were given the right to vote also for presidential electors and for some of the local officers.

War in Mexico and Europe. — After many years of peace, under the strong rule of President Diaz, Mexico became the scene of revolution and civil war. The successor of Diaz was overthrown and murdered, and General Huerta made himself dictator. President Wilson would not recognize him as the lawful president of Mexico; and Huerta's opponents in Mexico, the "Constitutionalists,"

finally succeeded in driving him from the country, in July, 1914. Meanwhile, in April, United States troops were sent to Mexico during a dispute with Huerta over the respect due our flag. They took Vera Cruz, but after Huerta's downfall they were withdrawn, in November.

The two leading Constitutionalist generals, Carranza and Villa, were then carrying on a new civil war, in which Carranza was victorious. When his government of Mexico was recognized by the United States (1916), Villa raided Columbus, New Mexico, and killed nineteen Americans. American troops were sent in pursuit, but failed to capture Villa. Carranza demanded that the troops be withdrawn from Mexico, and during negotiations over this and other questions there was a clash between Mexican and American forces at Carrizal. President Wilson ordered many regiments of state militia to the border, and there was grave danger of war; but at length the dispute was ended peacefully. Our troops were withdrawn from Mexico. Carranza's troops kept Villa in check. Mexico adopted a new constitution (1917) and elected Carranza president.

The United States was also seriously affected by the great war that broke out among European powers in 1914. President Wilson enforced strict neutrality; but the enormous loss of life and property in Europe, and the interference with our trade, caused a great derangement of industries in our country. A later effect of the war was to increase tremendously our foreign trade.

Election of 1916. — For President in 1916, the Republicans nominated Charles Evans Hughes, a justice of the Supreme Court. The Progressives named Theodore Roosevelt, but he declined the nomination and supported Hughes. The Democrats renominated President Wilson. The election was so close that the result was in doubt for several days. The completed returns showed that Wilson was elected.

Virgin Islands. — In 1916 the United States bought from Denmark for $25,000,000 three of the Virgin Islands in the West Indies, named St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix. These islands are important because of the excellent harbor of St. Thomas.

Summary. — 1. The election of 1900 turned chiefly on the silver question, and Mr. McKinley, the Republican candidate, was elected.

2. The Pan-American Exposition was held at Buffalo, New York, in the summer and fall of 1901. During a visit to this exposition on the 6th of September President McKinley was shot and mortally wounded by an anarchist. He died eight days later, and Vice-President Roosevelt succeeded him as President.

3. After long negotiations a treaty was made in 1901 between Great Britain and the United States which enabled this country to carry out its plan of constructing and controlling an isthmian canal. In 1902 Congress authorized the President to purchase and complete the Panama Canal, and this work was begun in 1904.

4. In 1900, in northern China, an uprising against foreigners reached such proportions that the European powers, Japan, and the United States were obliged to send troops to Peking to protect their ambassadors and other foreigners.

5. A long-continued strike of the anthracite coal miners in 1902 caused alarm and distress in the Eastern States, where anthracite is chiefly used. The questions at issue were finally submitted to a commission appointed by President Roosevelt.

6. The election of 1904 turned chiefly on Mr. Roosevelt's record as President, and resulted in his favor.

7. In 1906 Congress passed a number of important laws regulating interstate commerce, and provided for the admission of Oklahoma.

8. In 1908 William H. Taft was elected President by the Republicans. He promptly called a session of Congress, at which a new tariff law was passed.

9 In 1910 Congress provided for the admission of Arizona and New Mexico, which became States early in 1912.

10. In 1912 Woodrow Wilson was elected President by the Democrats, and in 1916 he was reëlected.

11. In 1913 two amendments to the Constitution were ratified by the States. Congress adopted a new tariff act and levied a tax on incomes. It also created a system of federal reserve banks, and established a Trade Commission.

12. The Panama Canal was completed in 1914.

13. By 1918, women had the right to vote on equal terms with men in fifteen States.

CHAPTER LXIII

THE GREAT WAR

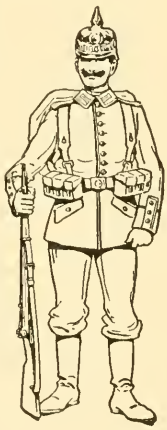
THE war which began in Europe in the summer of 1914 was the most momentous in history. The future of the whole world was at stake. To understand it, we must begin with events that happened long before 1914.

Europe before the War. — When the United States secured its independence in 1783, nearly all the countries of Europe were monarchies in fact as well as in name. They were actually under the rule of kings and nobles. Most of the common people had no political rights, and in some countries they were still serfs as in the Middle Ages, each bound to labor part of the time for the lord of the land on which he lived. But during the next hundred and thirty years, especially after the French Revolutions of 1789, 1830, and 1848, great changes took place. In country after country serfdom was abolished, monarchs were overthrown or were forced to grant constitutions, and the people gained a large share in the government, usually by electing one house of the lawmaking body.

Russia and Germany, however, lagged far behind the rest of Europe in political progress. In 1914 they were still autocracies, or nearly absolute monarchies, under emperors and nobles who governed as they pleased. In each of these countries the emperor controlled the chief officers of the government, and the lawmakers chosen by the people had very little power or influence. In Austria-Hungary also the emperor and nobles were able to rule as they pleased, in spite of apparently liberal constitutions, because the people were divided among many discordant races. One cause of the Great War was the age-long struggle between autocracy and democracy. Growing numbers of people in Germany and

Austria-Hungary were demanding freedom or a larger share in the government; and the ruling class believed that their control would be made more secure by a successful war.

German Ambitions. — The German Empire was set up in 1871, by the monarchs of the various German states, of which Prussia was larger than all the rest together. The king of Prussia, who had recently increased his territory by successful wars, was made *ex officio* the German Emperor.



German soldier about 1910

William II, who became king of Prussia and German Emperor in 1888, was strongly opposed to democracy. Like the kings of the Middle Ages, he believed that he held his power by "divine right," and thus was entitled to rule without the consent of the governed. Moreover, he and the Prussian nobles were ambitious to extend their empire. The German people were taught that they owed strict obedience to their rulers; that they were a chosen people, with institutions superior to those of other nations; and that they had a great mission to extend their influence over the world. Nearly all the able-bodied Germans were trained as soldiers, and their standing army was the strongest the world had ever seen. Under William II, a powerful navy was built. Said he in a public speech, "Our future lies on the water." German industries and foreign commerce were pushed by government aid. German colonies were acquired in Africa, the islands of the southern Pacific, and the coast of China. German financiers secured concessions for building railroads in Turkey. German influence was also dominant in Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria. German leaders looked forward to the domination of the world, and drank toasts to "The Day"

(*Der Tag*) when war for this purpose should begin. As a first step in world power, they planned to control a great empire of "Mid-Europe," including Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Balkan states, and adjacent provinces.

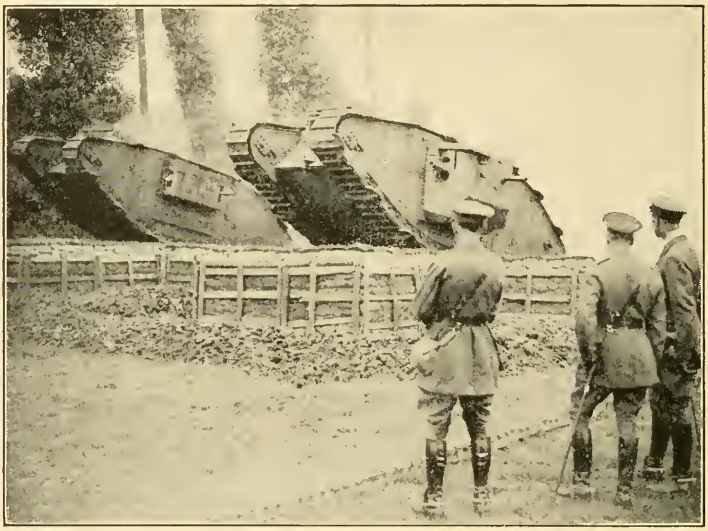
Germany against America, 1889–1903.—Germany's hunger for colonies several times led to threats of war with the United States, as well as with other nations. In the Samoan Islands the high-handed acts of German officers led to a show of force in 1889. American and German warships were ready for battle there when a hurricane destroyed them;—and an agreement was then made to end the dispute. During our war with Spain in 1898, when Admiral Dewey was blockading Manila, a German fleet showed a disposition to interfere with his operations. Dewey protested, and finally sent word to the German admiral that he could have a fight if he wanted it; whereupon the Germans desisted. In 1903, in a financial dispute with Venezuela, a German force threatened to occupy Venezuelan territory in defiance of the Monroe doctrine. But this danger was averted by the firmness of President Roosevelt, who insisted that the dispute should be left to arbitration, and backed up his insistence by making ready to send an American fleet to Venezuela.

Outbreak of the Great War.—The immediate cause of the Great War was the determination of Austria and Germany to gain control over Serbia, one of the Balkan states. On the pretext that Serbia was responsible for the murder of the heir to the Austrian throne, Austria declared war on Serbia late in July, 1914. The Serbs are a Slavic people, akin to the Russians. Russia made ready to intervene in support of Serbian independence. Thereupon Germany declared war on Russia, August 1, and also on France, which was allied with Russia for defensive purposes. To invade France across an unfortified frontier, German armies forced their way through neutral Belgium. This brought Great Britain at once into the war in defense of Belgium and of her own interests.

The War in 1914–1916. — Germany was better prepared for war than her enemies, and had counted on an easy victory. But the German invasion of France was turned back at the battle of the Marne, a great victory of the French (with a few British) under General Joffre (zhofr). Both sides intrenched, and for several years the struggle dragged on without a decision. Germany and Austria — the Central Powers — were joined by Turkey and Bulgaria. With the opposing Allies were enlisted Italy and several smaller nations; Japan also fought the Germans in the north Pacific. In Europe battle after battle was fought; in opposing trench systems hundreds of miles long there was incessant fighting; millions of men were killed, wounded, or made prisoners of war.

In the battle of Verdun, in 1916, the German crown prince lost 600,000 men in a stubborn but futile attempt to crush the French. Then in the equally bloody battle of the Somme, the British and French for many weeks slowly pushed the Germans back. On the eastern front the Germans were more successful. At the end of 1916 the Central Powers held most of Belgium, a strip of northern France, the greater part of the Balkan states, Poland, and a part of western Russia. The Allies had taken the German colonies and small parts of Turkey and Austria. The British fleet had driven German ships to cover and had cut off most of Germany's oversea trade.

New Methods of Warfare. — The Great War was more destructive to life and to property than any previous war. This was due not only to the greater number of soldiers in action, but also to new means of slaughter. Improved cannon and machine guns were used in prodigious numbers. Armored automobiles were introduced, and for moving over rough ground the British developed the "tank," heavily armored, propelled and steered by belt-like caterpillar treads, and armed with machine guns and small cannon. The tanks could defy machine guns,



British tanks

smash barbed wire entanglements, and cross trenches. Still more striking were the airships, of various kinds and used for various purposes — fighting, bombing, scouting, directing artillery fire. Germany built many huge dirigible balloons called Zeppelins, but they were easily defeated in battle by the speedy aëroplanes.

These weapons were terrible enough when used in conformity with international law. But the German government did not confine itself to lawful warfare. German Zeppelins and aëroplanes bombarded unfortified cities and villages far away from the zone of military operations, killing and maiming hundreds of women and children, but few men of military age. This was in flat violation of the Hague conventions, a code of international law which all the warring nations had recently pledged themselves to observe. German scientists also added enormously to the horrors of warfare by introducing the unlawful use of torturing poison gas and flame projectors. Poison gas proved so effective a weapon

that the Allies were compelled to adopt it in self-defense. Soldiers had to protect themselves from the deadly fumes by means of gas masks and respirators, which were added to their regular equipment.

In other ways also the German government flouted the Hague conventions and other rules of international law, as well as the usages of civilization and humanity, on the plea of "military necessity," in other words, on the theory that the end justifies the means, that might makes right. At the outset Germany violated a treaty guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgium, — a treaty which the German Chancellor once called a "scrap of paper." She terrorized and exploited the people of occupied territories by frightfully severe measures of repression, robbery, and forced labor; in plundered Poland a large part of the people were wiped out by famine. Likewise in Armenia and Syria a million Christians were done to death by the Turkish vassals of Germany. Unable to attempt a blockade by lawful means, German submarines tried to cut off the trade of the Allies by sinking merchant ships — in many cases without giving passengers and crew a chance to save their lives. Many hundreds of ships were sunk, but the Allies managed to hold the submarines in check by means of nets, aëroplanes, and swift patrol boats armed with quick-firing cannon and later with bombs that exploded on sinking to the proper depth.

American Sympathies. — At the beginning of the war, most of the people of the United States believed that our country should be neutral. They believed that we ought not to interfere in the quarrels of European nations. Nevertheless, most of them soon came to hope for the success of the Allies, for many reasons.

Although both sides claimed to be fighting a defensive war, the evidence was soon overwhelming that the Central Powers were the aggressors. For many years Germany had been preparing for war, and at the Hague Peace Con-

ferences and elsewhere her influence had been thrown against projects for reducing armaments and for promoting arbitration as the means of settling international disputes. Our own country had recently concluded special arbitration treaties with Great Britain, France, and many other nations, but Germany had declined to make such a treaty with us.

German plans of expansion included the control of large parts of South America, and German writers and statesmen openly denounced the Monroe doctrine. To citizens of the United States, as well as of other countries, who were of German descent, Germany offered the right of German citizenship. As such persons were permitted to remain at the same time citizens of their adopted country, this offer was really the assertion of a superior claim to their allegiance.

Germany's disregard of treaties and international law, together with her barbarous methods of warfare, meant a disastrous set-back to civilization if she should be victorious. A victory of Germany's military ideals and her autocratic rule would mean far more than the government of a few additional provinces without the consent of the governed. It would be a deadly menace to our own future peace and welfare; for in the future it would be necessary either to submit to German domination, or else to keep up a burdensome armament for the defense of our rights. Said the German Emperor in 1915, as reported by the American ambassador James W. Gerard, "America had better look out after this war," and "I shall stand no nonsense from America after the war."

American Neutrality. — In spite of many reasons for war, America's love of peace was so great that we clung as long as possible to the position of strict neutrality. For a time we hoped to be able to play the part of mediator in helping to end the struggle on fair terms. In December, 1916, President Wilson asked all the warring nations to state the aims for which they were fighting, with a

view to finding terms on which the fearful contest might be ended. He also urged the formation of a league of nations to prevent future wars. The Allies stated their aims and approved of the proposed league. Germany declined to do so, but proposed instead a conference at which terms of peace could be discussed in secret. Her proposition was declined by the Allies, on the ground that it was designed merely to embarrass them without giving any promise or hope of fair terms.

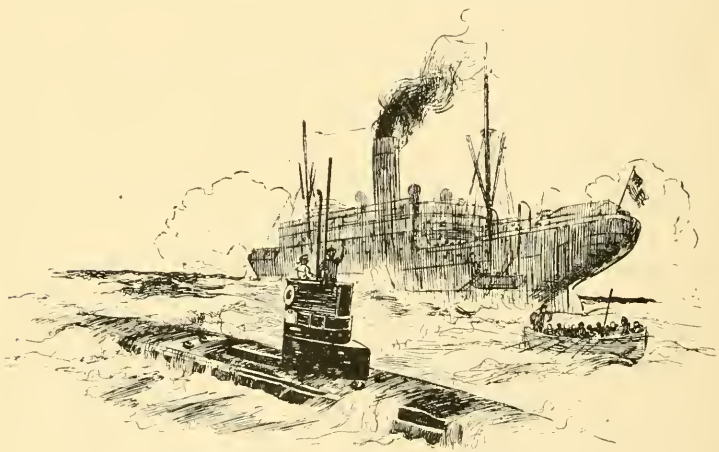
As a neutral country, the United States insisted on the right of its citizens to trade freely with all countries, subject to the rules of international law in regard to contraband and blockades. In cutting off trade with Germany the British searched neutral ships and controlled their movements in ways to which we objected as arbitrary and unlawful. Our protests had little effect, but as the dispute concerned only the property, and not the lives, of our citizens, it could await arbitration and full satisfaction in calmer times.

On the other hand, German interference with our rights was more serious because it cost the lives of many Americans. When a German submarine unlawfully sank the British liner *Lusitania* without warning in May, 1915, more than a hundred American passengers, men, women, and children, were drowned. President Wilson made repeated protests, but other passenger ships were sunk without warning, and our government at last threatened to break off diplomatic relations if Germany did not abandon her unlawful methods of submarine warfare. To prevent the break, Germany then made a conditional promise not to sink such ships — unless they should resist capture — without giving passengers and crew a chance to escape in their lifeboats.

Germany's War on the United States.—Early in 1917, Germany withdrew her promise and announced that she would begin at once an unrestricted submarine warfare against all ships, either belligerent or neutral, within a certain

zone around the coasts of Great Britain and France. President Wilson thereupon broke off diplomatic relations with Germany, but expressed the hope that she would not actually carry out her threat.

By April, however, Germany had sunk several of our ships, and had added to the toll of American lives lost in other unlawful sinkings. It was plain that the warfare thus made upon us by Germany could be avoided in



The submarines sank many unarmed ships

only one way — by abandoning our rights on the ocean. There were also several other causes of war. For many months German spies in this country, under the direction of the German embassy, had been stirring up strikes, dynamiting munition factories, and plotting to blow up ships leaving our ports. Other German agents were agitating against us in several Spanish American countries, and in January, 1917, the German foreign minister, Dr. Zimmermann, offered an alliance and financial support to Mexico for a war in which the Mexicans should reconquer New Mexico, Texas, and Arizona. He also suggested that Mexico should invite Japan to join in the proposed plan.

The Russian Revolution. — American opinion was influenced also by a revolution in Russia. The Russian government had been even more autocratic and oppressive than the German, and many Americans were afraid that Russian autocracy would be strengthened by any success of the Allies. But in March, 1917, the Russian Czar was deposed, and Russia took the first steps toward establishing a government by the people. Thus the Great War was rapidly coming to be a clear-cut struggle between autocracy and democracy, between tyranny and freedom.

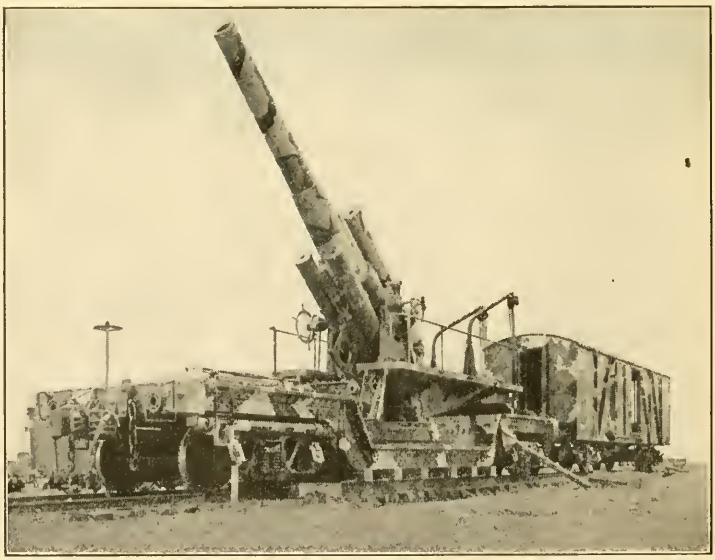
America in the War. — On April 2, 1917, President Wilson called Congress in special session and laid the case before it. He said: "The present German submarine warfare against commerce is a warfare against mankind. . . . Each nation must decide for itself how it will meet it. . . . There is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making: we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated. The wrongs against which we now array ourselves are no common wrongs; they cut to the very roots of human life." The President asked Congress to declare the existence of a state of war with Germany, and Congress passed the required resolution by a very large majority April 6.

Our country went into the war to secure a just and stable peace, and not to gain any special advantage for itself. We made no treaty of alliance with the Allies, but we worked in close harmony and coöperation with them. We lent money and sent supplies and men where they were most needed to win the victory. War with Austria-Hungary was declared in December, 1917. Brazil, Cuba, and several other countries followed the lead of the United States in declaring war on Germany. The plans of the Allies were greatly influenced by our counsel, and especially by the American principle of govern-

ment by the consent of the governed, as a means of avoiding future wars.

Preparations for War. — Congress was suddenly called on to pass many laws for putting the country on a war basis. Under existing laws several hundred thousand new men enlisted in the national guard and in the regular army. But for the creation of an army numbering millions, Congress passed several draft acts or conscription laws. On June 5, 1917, all men between 21 and 31 years of age were required to register. Nearly 10,000,000 did so. Local draft boards examined these men, and from time to time those fit for service, selected partly by classes and partly by lot, were called to the colors and sent to camps to be trained. In 1918, Congress provided for the registration of all men between 18 and 46 years old.

Immense appropriations were made for carrying on the war, not only for pay and support of soldiers, but



American gun of 16 inch caliber, painted in camouflage to make it less visible to the enemy

also for building camps and arsenals, making munitions, guns, "tanks," and aëroplanes, and building shipyards and ships. Over a billion dollars were devoted to the making of aëroplanes alone.

The cost had to be met by taxes and loans. Within a period of less than eighteen months, the people loaned the government about $17,000,000,000 by the purchase of Liberty bonds. A large sum was raised by the sale of War Savings Stamps, and immense sums were collected in taxes on incomes, on excess war profits, and on inheritances, besides many other taxes.

Shipbuilding. — The steady destruction of many merchant ships by German submarines had reduced considerably the shipping under the British, French, Norwegian, Dutch, and other flags, both Allied and neutral. The shortage of ships made it necessary for our government to go into the business of shipbuilding on a great scale, so that troops and supplies could be rushed to the Allies. An Emergency Fleet Corporation, organized and financed by the government, contracted for the building of hundreds of new vessels. At Philadelphia the Hog Island shipyard was constructed, larger than any other in existence. At many other places also new shipyards were built and existing shipyards were taken over by the government so that this country was soon the greatest shipbuilding nation of the world. Many of the new vessels were made of wood, a few of concrete, but the largest were of steel. By making many ships exactly alike, it was possible to build them faster than ever before; for parts could be made in large quantities at inland factories and shipped to the yards as needed. The government also repaired and put into commission a large fleet of German ships which had been sheltered in our ports but were extensively damaged by their crews under orders from Germany in January, 1917. By the middle of 1918 we were building ships faster than Germany was sinking them, so that the world's shipping had begun to grow larger again.

Food and Fuel Regulation. — As so many men were engaged in war, the world's production of food and other things was decreasing. In order that the Allies might have more food and that our troops might have plenty, steps were taken to increase the American supply and to cut down home consumption. Farmers were asked to plant more grain, and women to can more fruit and vegetables. Home gardens were planted everywhere. City men and women volunteered to work on farms. Congress gave the President power to control the prices of wheat, coal, metals, and many other things. Herbert Hoover, as Food Administrator, made many rules limiting the use of meat, flour, sugar, and other foods.

A similar rationing system was put in force by a Fuel Administrator so that there might be plenty of coal for ships and for factories engaged in war work. The "Daylight Saving" law was passed early in 1918 in order to save coal and gas by bringing more of our activities into the daylight hours and thus reducing the need of artificial light. Under this law our clocks and watches are set one hour in advance from the last Sunday in March till the last Sunday in October.

As war measures, also, Congress authorized the President to forbid the use of foodstuffs in making liquor, and prohibited the liquor traffic entirely from July 1, 1919, till after the demobilization of the American troops. It also proposed a prohibition amendment to the Constitution. This eighteenth amendment was duly ratified by the necessary number of states in January, 1919, to go into effect one year later.

Trade Regulation. — Under authority given by Congress the President controlled the imports and exports of the country. In 1918 he took over the control and operation of railroads, telegraphs, and telephones for the period of the war, thus making it possible to effect economies in their management and to prevent interruptions of war work.

Popular Support of the War. — These laws and regulations brought loss and trouble to many people. Because of the government's large demand for things, the prices of food, clothing, and other articles rose very high, and would have risen still higher but for government control. The demand for labor was so great that wages also rose; but multitudes of men and women workers had to leave their homes and move to uncomfortable quarters near their work. Taxes were burdensome. In carrying on the vast business of war making, there were various mistakes and delays, causing hardships to many persons. Above all, several million men were drafted for service as soldiers.

A Liberty Loan poster

Here were abundant causes for discontent, for partisan and factional strife, for popular opposition to the war; but no. Only a few persons of German descent, a few haters of England, part of the Socialist party, and a few pacifists and extreme radicals were in open opposition. With marvelous accord nearly all Americans, native and naturalized, rich and poor, men, women, and children, joined in hearty support of America's cause. They were far more nearly unanimous in support of this war than of any other war in our history.

Besides paying heavy taxes and lending money to the

government, the people gave many millions of dollars to the Red Cross, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, the Salvation Army, and other organizations for helping the men in service. Near the end of 1918, a united war work drive resulted in securing gifts of over $200,000,000 for the use of seven such organizations — Protestant, Catholic, Hebrew, and non-sectarian. Every community had its local branch of the Red Cross, where women gathered to make garments and bandages for the wounded, or to maintain a canteen service for men in uniform.

German Propaganda. — The German government spent millions of dollars in trying to influence American public opinion in favor of Germany, or at least in favor of neutrality. Newspapers were bought, lecturers and writers were hired, pro-German and pacifist associations were organized, congressmen were deluged with telegrams, all in an elaborate plot to mislead the people. This campaign had little effect. After we entered the war, however, an espionage act was passed to punish the giving of aid to Germany either by spying or by speaking or writing in her favor or against the American cause.

Many German citizens were residents of our country. Those who were active in support of Germany, if not convicted and imprisoned for crime, were interned for the period of the war. The others were merely required to register and to keep away from munitions plants and from the water front. An Alien Property Custodian took over the control of large factories and other properties owned by alien enemies, to hold them or the proceeds of their sale until the end of the war.

The War on the Sea. — Before announcing the renewal of unrestricted submarining, Germany had built many new submarines. Dr. Zimmermann in his offer to Mexico (page 420) said, "The employment of ruthless submarine

warfare now promises to compel England to make peace in a few months." But this promise was not to be fulfilled. For a few months there was an alarming increase in the number of ships sunk, but then the Allied destroyers regained the upper hand. In the work of fighting the submarines our navy promptly took part. A fleet of our destroyers and other warships, under Admiral Sims, was constantly busy in patrol duty and in convoying transports. Not only were the Allies provided with the supplies they required, but month after month our troops were successfully transported to France, in British and American ships, to the number of more than 2,000,000 by the end of October, 1918.

Unable to throttle England or to stop the American troop-ships, a few of the German submarines turned their attention to our Atlantic coast, beginning in May, 1918. They avoided our convoys and armed ships, but sank a number of defenseless sailing vessels and a few unarmed steamers.

The War on Land. — The Russian revolution of March, 1917, left the government at first in the hands of men who wished to make Russia a democratic republic. They were friendly to the Allies, and wished to continue the war against Germany as the chief enemy of democracy. But their plans were upset by extreme Socialists called Bolsheviki (bol-shĕv-e-kee′), who insisted on a government by workmen only, an immediate peace, a division of the land, and all kinds of socialistic reforms. The Bolshevik leaders, aided by German gold, launched a new revolution and seized the Russian government in November, 1917. They repudiated the debts and obligations of Russia, and signed the treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany, by which they agreed to pay a large indemnity and to give up all claim to immense provinces in the west and south. At once the country fell a prey to German extortion, famine, anarchy, and civil war. In August, 1918, American and other Allied troops were

landed in Siberia and in northern Russia, to guard the distribution of supplies and to coöperate with the people in resisting the Germans.

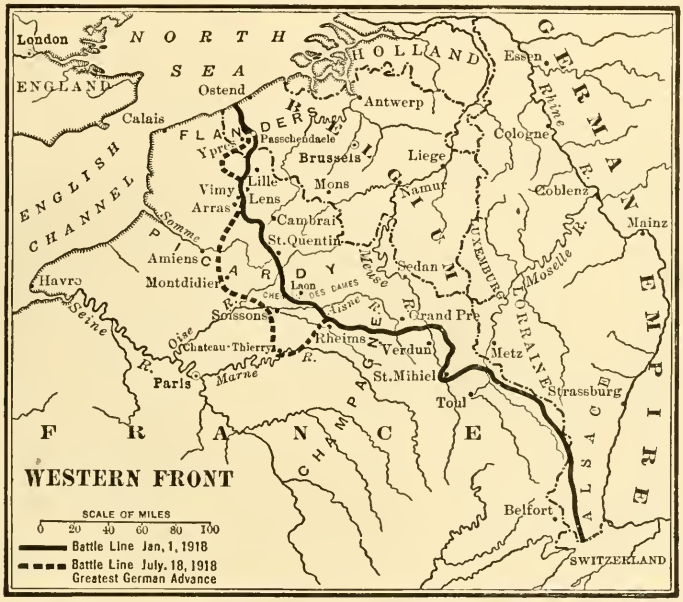
The collapse of Russia enabled the Central Powers to transfer many troops from the east to the west. In the fall of 1917 they drove the Italians back to the Piave (pyah'vay) River in northeastern Italy, capturing many guns and prisoners. In France also in the first half of 1918 they made large gains against the British and the French. There was indeed grave danger of Ger-

Victorious American troops (marines) in Paris July 4, 1918

man victory. But American troops arriving and training in France, under the command of General Pershing, at length restored the balance in numbers. Also, partly through American influence, all the Allied armies in France and Italy were placed under a single supreme commander, the French General Foch (fosh). To complete the training of the American troops most quickly, many of them fought in scattered regiments and divisions beside veteran Allies under British and French officers.

American Victories. — Short lengths of the trench lines, at several places between Rheims and the Swiss border, were intrusted to the Americans as early as March, 1918. By a sudden attack the Germans took Seicheprey (sāsh-

pray) in April, but the Americans and French promptly rallied and drove out the intruders. Farther west, in May, an American force took Cantigny (cahn-teen-yee), and held it against strong counter-attacks. American marines and soldiers at Chateau-Thierry (sha-tō-tyĕr-



The battle front in France at the end of the last German drive

ree) stopped the advance of the Germans nearest to Paris in June and July, and many Americans helped in the counterstrokes by which General Foch drove the Germans nearly out of France.

Meanwhile large American armies were formed to take over the conduct of operations on a long stretch of the front. On September 12–13 General Pershing took the St. Mihiel salient, with many prisoners and guns. Then in brilliant and stubborn fighting the Americans pressed through the Argonne, reached Sedan (Nov. 7), and thus cut one of the main German lines of retreat.

Surrender of Germany.—Allied arms, meanwhile, had been brilliantly successful in many fields. Bulgaria was forced to yield in September, Turkey in October, and Austria-Hungary early in November, in the midst of a terrific defeat at the hands of the Italians. The German government begged for a truce and agreed to accept a peace based on principles that had been laid down by President Wilson. The German army, now on the verge of disaster, quickly accepted from General Foch the terms of an armistice which amounted to virtual surrender November 11, and hostilities ended at 11 A.M. on that day.

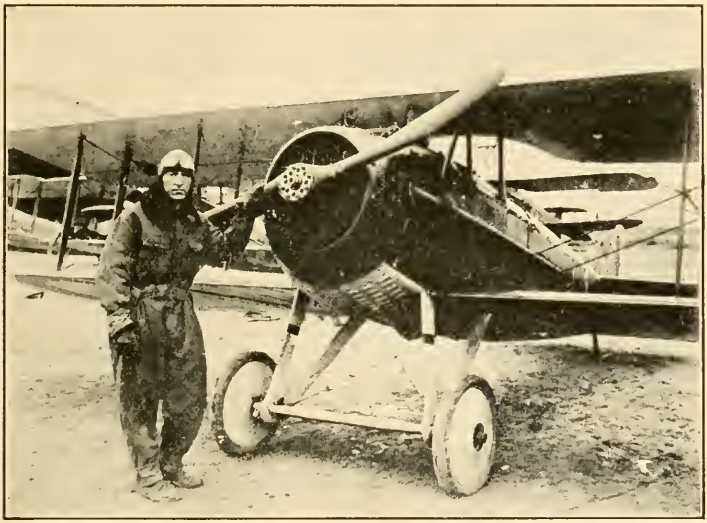
The armistice was for a period of thirty days, with option to make extensions. Under it, Germany handed over thousands of guns of all kinds, many aëroplanes, trucks, and railroad trains, and much other property. She surrendered all her submarines, and most of her other warships. She gave up Allied prisoners of war. She stopped destroying Allied property and withdrew her troops from occupied territory — Belgium, Alsace-Lorraine, Poland, Roumania, Austria-Hungary. She renounced the treaty of Brest-Litovsk. Moreover, she consented to the occupation of the west bank of the Rhine by Allied troops, together with important places on the east bank. And it was agreed that Germany should make reparation for damage done.

By December the British, Belgian, French, and American armies were in possession of the large part of Germany west of the Rhine, and President Wilson was conferring with the heads of the Allied governments in preparation for the peace conference.

In the meantime, ever since November, Austria-Hungary and Germany had been in the throes of revolution. Both emperors abdicated, as did the monarchs of the various German states. In many places the Socialists came into power, and in Berlin and other cities there was much sharp fighting between different factions.

Cost of the War.—As the United States did not enter the

war till several years after it began, the American losses in killed and wounded were far smaller than those of the Allies. Our casualties totaled about 60,000 dead and 200,000 wounded, as compared with several *millions* each for France, Great Britain, and Russia. In the outlay of money, however, the difference was not so great. The money cost of the war will probably exceed



An American aviator (Rickenbacker) with his fighting aëroplane

$30,000,000,000 for the United States, as compared with perhaps twice as much for Great Britain or France.

The Peace Conference. — The formal peace conference began in Paris January 18, 1919, with President Wilson, the prime ministers of Great Britain, France, and Italy, and many other Allied statesmen in attendance. Many questions were referred to committees for investigation and reports. President Wilson urged the immediate formation of a League of Nations, with the aim of preventing future wars. While the work of the conference was under way, the armistice of November 11 was several times extended.

APPENDIX

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

We the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Repesentatives.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

CLAUSE 2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

CLAUSE 3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one;

Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

CLAUSE 4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

CLAUSE 5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, [chosen by the Legislature thereof,][1] for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

CLAUSE 2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; [and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.][1]

CLAUSE 3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

CLAUSE 4. The Vice President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

CLAUSE 5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

CLAUSE 6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments; when sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

CLAUSE 7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV.—CLAUSE 1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each

[1] Superseded by the Seventeenth Amendment.

State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

CLAUSE 2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V.—CLAUSE 1. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

CLAUSE 2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

CLAUSE 3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

CLAUSE 4. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI.—CLAUSE 1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

CLAUSE 2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII.—CLAUSE 1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

CLAUSE 2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

CLAUSE 3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII.—CLAUSE 1. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

CLAUSE 2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

CLAUSE 3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

CLAUSE 4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies thoughout the United States;

CLAUSE 5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

CLAUSE 6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

CLAUSE 7. To establish post offices and post roads;

CLAUSE 8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

CLAUSE 9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

CLAUSE 10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

CLAUSE 11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

CLAUSE 12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

CLAUSE 13. To provide and maintain a navy;

CLAUSE 14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

CLAUSE 15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

CLAUSE 16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress:

CLAUSE 17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—And

CLAUSE 18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX.—CLAUSE 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

CLAUSE 2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

CLAUSE 3. No bill of attainder or ex-post-facto law shall be passed.

CLAUSE 4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

CLAUSE 5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

CLAUSE 6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor

shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

CLAUSE 7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law: and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

CLAUSE 8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION X.—CLAUSE 1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

CLAUSE 2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and impost, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

CLAUSE 3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECTION I.—CLAUSE 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

CLAUSE 2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

CLAUSE 3. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

CLAUSE 4. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

CLAUSE 5. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

CLAUSE 6. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

CLAUSE 7. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

CLAUSE 2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

CLAUSE 3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III.—He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV.—The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;—between citizens of different States;—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

CLAUSE 2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

CLAUSE 3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury, and such trials shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any

State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

CLAUSE 2. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

CLAUSE 3. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION I.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State; and the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

CLAUSE 2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

CLAUSE 3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

CLAUSE 2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the executive (when the Legislature can not be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

CLAUSE 1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the confederation.

CLAUSE 2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

CLAUSE 3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our

Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President, and Deputy from Virginia.*

(Signed also by thirty-eight other deputies, from twelve States.)

AMENDMENTS

To the Constitution of the United States, Ratified according to the Provisions of the Fifth Article of the Foregoing Constitution.

ARTICLE I. — Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II. — A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III. — No soldiers shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV. — The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrant shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V. — No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. — In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII. — In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII. — Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX. — The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. — The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI. — The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII. — The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate; — the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President, shall be the

Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII. — SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the person shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV. — SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each house, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV. — SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI. — The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII. — The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: *Provided*, That the Legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII. — SECTION 1. After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

SECTION 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

SECTION 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

BIOGRAPHIES

Adams, John, the second President of the United States, was born in Braintree, Mass., a farmer's son, in 1735. He graduated at Harvard College, taught school for two years, and began the practice of law when twenty-three years of age. He took an active part in the Stamp Act agitation and soon became a chief of the revolutionary party. While a member of the Continental Congress, he was one of the committee that drafted the Declaration of Independence, and was signer of that document. He was one of the commissioners that negotiated the treaty of peace with England, and was minister to England for three years. He was Vice President during both terms of Washington's presidency, and was then President for four years. His peculiarities had something to do with his defeat for a second term as President ; for, while honest and true to his convictions, he was irritable and somewhat quarrelsome. He died July 4, 1826, exactly fifty years after the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

Adams, John Quincy, the sixth President, son of John Adams, the second President, was born in Braintree, Mass., in 1767. Part of his boyhood was spent at school in France and Holland, and at other places in Europe. He graduated at Harvard College when twenty years old, and studied law. At various times he was American minister to Holland, Prussia, and Russia, and he was one of the commissioners that made peace with England at the close of the War of 1812. At home, also, he held various important offices, and after his presidency he sat in the lower house of Congress for many years, from 1831 to 1848. This was the most brilliant part of his career. He was called "The Old Man Eloquent" at eighty years of age. Stricken with apoplexy when about to address the House, he died in the Capitol (1848).

Adams, Samuel, a second cousin of John Adams, was born in Boston in 1722, and was educated at Harvard College. When he took the Master of Arts degree he defended in his oration the right of the people to resist the supreme magistrate "if the commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved." He played a leading part in the resistance to England, and was one of the first to advocate political separation. He proposed the Congress of 1774, and was a signer of the Declaration of Independence. He was a man of pure and incorruptible life; he was always poor, and the king of England failed to buy him from the path of virtue. He died in 1803.

Arthur, Chester Alan, the twenty-first President, was born at Fairfield, Vermont, in 1830. He graduated at Union College, New York, studied law, was admitted to the New York bar in 1853, and held various military and political positions. He died in 1886.

Audubon, John James, was born in Louisiana, then a French colony, in 1780. He studied drawing under David in Paris. Settling in Pennsylvania when he was about twenty years old, he tried to acquire a taste for farming, but in vain. Every bird note tempted him. He led a roving life, constantly making bird drawings of wonderful accuracy. Two hundred of his drawings were destroyed by rats, but he began over again and made new and better drawings. His "Birds of America," a work unequalled for splendor, was published in England. He died in New York city in 1851.

Bacon Nathaniel, sometimes called the "Virginia rebel," was born in Suffolk, England, in 1630. He was educated in London, and when still a young man settled on a large estate in Virginia. Sir William Berkeley was at that time the governor of the colony. Berkeley was narrow-minded and obstinate. He was opposed to printing-presses and schools, and said that he hoped there would be none in Virginia for a hundred years. The story of Bacon's rebellion against Berkeley's tyrannical rule is told on page 93. Bacon died in 1677.

Balboa, Vasco Nuñez de, a Spanish nobleman, was born in 1475. After discovering the Pacific (p. 26), he received from the king a commission to explore its shore, and succeeded in building some ships on the Pacific side of the Isthmus. He was recalled, however, by Pedrarias, the jealous governor of the Isthmian region, and executed on a charge of treason in 1517.

Baltimore, Lord. See *Calvert, Cecil.*

Bancroft, George, the first great American historian, was born in Massachusetts in 1800, the son of a Unitarian minister. He graduated at Harvard College and studied history in Germany. While Secretary of the Navy in 1845, he founded the naval academy at Annapolis. Later he served as American minister to England, Prussia, and the German Empire. His "History of the United States" is an elaborate and carefully written account of the colonial and revolutionary periods of our history. He published it in twelve volumes in 1834-1882; and also in a revised edition of six volumes in 1882-1885. He died in 1891.

Boone, Daniel, the famous hunter and pioneer, was born in Pennsylvania in 1735, but soon settled in North Carolina. In 1769, with five companions, he made a hunting and exploring expedition into the forests of Kentucky, and the following year he spent there alone. A few years later he established the first permanent white settlement in the State, and built the fort of Boonesboro to defend it. His many successful hunting adventures and desperate conflicts with Indians made him the hero

of pioneers. The rapid settlement of Kentucky having cut off his favorite pursuits, he removed in 1795 to Missouri, where he died twenty-five years later.

Bradford, William, was born at Austerfield, Yorkshire, England, in 1589, and inherited a small farm. Before coming of age he became one of the leaders of the Separatist church at Scrooby, was imprisoned several months on account of his faith, and escaped to Holland. He was one of the exploring party that landed at Plymouth, December 21, 1620 (p. 56); on his return to the "Mayflower" he learned that his wife had fallen overboard and drowned during his absence. He married again in 1623, and died in 1657. He is noted not only as a wise and able governor (p. 57), but also as the author of a valuable "History of the Plymouth Plantation," covering the period of 1602 to 1647. Bradford's manuscript of this book, which had not yet been printed, disappeared from its place in the Old South Meetinghouse during the British occupation of Boston (1775-76). Eighty years later it was found in an English library, and in 1897 it was brought back to Massachusetts.

Bryant, William Cullen, was born in Massachusetts in 1794, and was educated at Williams College. He practiced law ten years, but in 1825 he became an editor in New York city, and from the following year till his death, as editor-in-chief of the "Evening Post," he exercised a great influence on journalism. He was a graceful orator, also; but he is best remembered for his thoughtful and carefully wrought poems. "Thanatopsis," perhaps the most famous of them, was written when the poet was in his nineteenth year. He died in 1878.

Buchanan, James, the fifteenth President, was born in Pennsylvania in 1791. He became a lawyer, and entered political life as a distraction from his grief over the death of his betrothed. After a brilliant career as Congressman and Senator from Pennsylvania, and as Secretary of State under President Polk, he was appointed minister to England by Pierce. In the presidency his chief aim was to prevent the disruption of the Democratic party, but in this he failed, becoming himself a Southern sympathizer. When secession was threatened, after the election of 1860, he opposed it with peaceful means only, claiming that the President had no power or right to use force. He died in 1868, the only President who never married.

Cabot, John, or Juan Caboto in the Venetian dialect, was for many years unknown to fame, his discoveries (p. 25) being formerly ascribed to his son, Sebastian. No one knows when he was born, but it is believed that he died in 1498, while on his second voyage; for there is no record of his return. Sebastian Cabot became a man of much renown. He was Pilot Major of Spain from 1518 to 1548, when he returned to England and became governor of a company engaged in discovery and trade on the north coast of Europe. He died in 1557 or soon after

Calhoun, John Caldwell, statesman, was born in South Carolina in 1782. He graduated at Yale College in 1804, studied law, and in 1811 became a member of Congress from South Carolina. He was Secretary of War under President Monroe, and was elected Vice President in 1824 and again in 1828. Having resigned this office, he was chosen Senator from South Carolina in 1832, and continued in the Senate the rest of his life, excepting the brief interval of 1843-45, during part of which he was Secretary of State under Tyler. He was one of the chief advocates of the doctrine of State sovereignty and the rights of nullification and secession, in which he was opposed by Daniel Webster in debate. He died in Washington in 1850.

Calvert, Cecil, second Lord Baltimore, was born about 1605. He spent £40,000 on the expedition that settled Maryland (p. 74). He never visited the colony, but governed it through deputies until his death, in 1675. He was a sincere and steadfast Catholic, singularly free from the bigotry characteristic of his age, and his rule was marked by good judgment and moderation.

Carnegie, Andrew, manufacturer and philanthropist, was born in Dunfermline, Scotland, in 1837. His father, who was in very humble circumstances, came to this country with his family when Andrew was 11 years of age and settled at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. He came because he believed that his sons would have better opportunities in a country having a republican government. At the age of 12, Andrew Carnegie went to work as bobbin-boy in a cotton factory. By toiling from morning till night he earned a little over a dollar a week. At 14 he became a telegraph messenger boy at $2.50 a week. He learned telegraphy, and soon became an operator at $300 a year. His energy and skill attracted the attention of Thomas A. Scott, the president of the Pennsylvania Railroad, who offered him a position as clerk at $35 a month. He remained with the company for thirteen years. In the meanwhile he was successful in several business ventures, organized a sleeping-car company and a bridge-building company, and at the outbreak of the Civil War was made superintendent of military railways. He later became owner of the Homestead Steel Works at Pittsburgh, and by introducing new methods of construction built up a business which produced a colossal fortune. He has given many millions for the founding of libraries and the aid of public institutions in all parts of the United States and in his native Scotland.

Champlain, Samuel de, the founder of the French power in America, was born in France in 1567. The story of his predecessors in the New World, Verazano, Cartier, and others, is told in Chapter IV. of this volume (pp. 32-36). Quebec was founded by Champlain in 1608, and in the next year he discovered the lake which has since been known by his name. He was for many years governor of Canada. He died at Quebec in 1635..

Clark, George Rogers, was born in Virginia in 1752. He became a surveyor, and removed to the upper Ohio valley when he was twenty years old. At the outbreak of the Revolution he secured the organization of Kentucky as a county of Virginia, and was appointed major of militia in that region. He wrested the country north of the Ohio from British and Indian foes, and thus saved it to the United States (p. 174), but his services were unrewarded and his latter years were spent in poverty. He died in 1818.

Clay, Henry, was considered by those who heard him speak the greatest of American orators. He was born in Virginia in 1777, and passed his youth in poverty. He studied law, and removed to Lexington, Kentucky, to practice. He became a favorite orator and was soon sent to Congress. For many years he served as Speaker of the House and as Senator. He was the chief advocate of the Missouri Compromise, of the compromise tariff of 1833, and of the compromise of 1850. A man of singularly winning personality, he was idolized by his friends, and respected even by his enemies. He was three times a candidate for President, but was never elected. He died in 1852.

Cleveland, Grover, twenty-second and twenty-fourth President, was born at Caldwell, New Jersey, but his parents moved to Fayetteville, New York, when he was four years old. His full name was Stephen Grover Cleveland, but he discarded the first name. He studied law and practiced very successfully in Buffalo. He was elected mayor of Buffalo in 1881, and governor of New York in 1882 by an unprecedented plurality. Elected President in 1884, he failed of reëlection in 1888, but was again elected in 1892. He died in 1908.

Clinton, De Witt, governor of New York, was born in Orange County, New York, in 1769. He was chosen to the United States senate in 1802, but resigned to become mayor of New York city, a position which he held for thirteen years. He was elected governor of the state in 1817, and it was chiefly through his influence that the Erie canal was successfully completed (p. 258). He was again elected governor in 1824, and reëlected in 1826. He died in 1828, while still in office.

Columbus, Christopher, the discoverer of America, was born in Genoa, Italy, the son of a humble wool-comber. He got some education, knew Latin, and drew charts exceedingly well. He was a man of great perseverance and held to his idea of sailing to the westward in search of Asia, in spite of many disheartening reverses. After his great voyage of 1492 he was loaded with honors and was given control of the Spanish settlements. In 1500 he was deposed from the governorship of his colonies and was sent home in chains. But Ferdinand and Isabella were shocked at this degradation and he was set free. Columbus's last voyage to the west, in 1502, was unfortunate. He died in Spain in the year 1506.

Cooper, Peter, philanthropist, was born in New York city in 1791. In the course of a long life he was ever changing his trade. He made tents, brewed ale, made bricks, worked at carriage-making, worked at machines for shearing cloth, made cabinet-work, and then invested all his resources in a glue factory, making many other things at the same time. He then bought iron works and built a small locomotive, the first in the country, which proved that locomotives could run round a curve. He established an iron mill and the largest blast furnaces then known, in Philipsburg, Pennsylvania. He was president of the first Atlantic Cable Company. He founded, in 1854, his Cooper Union, an institution designed to aid the young in acquiring knowledge useful in earning a living. It has a library, an art school, etc. The building cost $750,000. He gave away about four millions in all, and died worth about two millions. He died in 1883.

Davis, Jefferson, was a native of Kentucky and was born June 3, 1808. He was educated at Transylvania University and graduated at West Point in 1828. He left the army in 1835; in 1845 he became a member of Congress. In the Mexican War he was colonel of a Mississippi regiment, and was distinguished for courage and coolness in action. He served several years as United States Senator for Mississippi, and was Secretary of War in President Pierce's cabinet. He again entered the Senate in 1857, but resigned when Mississippi seceded in 1861. He was President of the Confederate States of America during the whole period of their existence. His death occurred December 6, 1889.

De Soto, Fernando, Spanish adventurer, was born in 1496. He was connected with several exploring expeditions in Central America, and in 1533 joined Pizarro in the conquest of Peru. He returned to Spain with a fortune of $500,000, and married a lady of noble birth. Soon afterward he was made governor of Cuba, and authorized to explore and conquer Florida (p. 31). He died in 1542, and was buried in the Mississippi River.

Dewey, George, was born in Vermont in 1837, and graduated from the Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1858. He served in Farragut's fleet in the capture of New Orleans in 1862, and the next year was on board a ship that was sunk in trying to pass Port Hudson. Continuing in the navy, he had risen to the rank of commodore when the war with Spain began, in April, 1898. For his brilliant victory in Manila Bay (p. 389), he received the thanks of Congress and the rank of admiral.

Drake, Sir Francis, a famous English navigator of the sixteenth century. In 1570, during a voyage in which he captured $800,000 in treasure from the Spaniards, he visited upper California and gave it the name of New Albion. Albion was one of the names then applied to England. Continuing westward across the Pacific and Indian Oceans, he was the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe. In 1588 he commanded

a division of the English fleet in its great victory over the Spanish Armada. He died in 1596.

Edison, Thomas Alva, inventor, was born at Milan, Ohio, in 1847. He began life as a train boy. Having learned telegraphy, he became an operator and made a number of inventions connected with the telegraph. He established an immense laboratory, first at Menlo Park and then at West Orange, New Jersey, and with a corps of trained assistants he made invention a highly successful profession. The world owes to him the incandescent electric light, many improvements of the telephone, telegraph, etc., the phonograph, and hundreds of other inventions. He has received high honors from foreign governments.

Emerson, Ralph Waldo, poet and essayist, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1803, and graduated at Harvard College at eighteen years of age. He became one of the best-known lecturers in the United States and traveled extensively. A philosopher and independent thinker, he exerted a great influence on American thought and literature, although not a prolific writer. He died in 1882, at Concord, Massachusetts, which had been his home for nearly half a century.

Farragut, David Glasgow, was born near Knoxville, Tennessee, in July, 1801. His father, a native of the Balearic Isles, having died in 1808, he was sent to school at Chester, Pennsylvania, by Commodore Porter. He was appointed midshipman in the navy when less than ten years of age, and saw service in the War of 1812 and the war with Mexico. It was in the Civil War, however, that he became famous. After the capture of New Orleans (p. 324), he was made rear-admiral. After the battle of Mobile Bay (p. 348), the city of New York gave him a purse of $50,000, and he was made vice-admiral. In 1866 Congress created the rank of Admiral for him. He was the first to hold that rank in the American navy. He died in 1870.

Field, Cyrus West, was born in Massachusetts in 1819, the son of a minister. In his boyhood he was a clerk in New York city, and later he became a prosperous merchant. For his success in laying the first Atlantic telegraph cable (p. 399), he received many honors at home and abroad. He was afterward engaged in the construction of elevated railroads in New York and in other large enterprises. He died in 1892.

Fillmore, Millard, thirteenth President, was born in New York in 1800. His school education was scanty, but he became a lawyer and rose to eminence in his profession. In his State he secured the passage of a law abolishing imprisonment for debt. He succeeded to the presidency on the death of Taylor in July, 1850. He died in 1874.

Franklin, Benjamin, the son of a tallow chandler, was born in Boston in 1706. He learned the printer's trade in his brother's office. He went to Philadelphia at seventeen. After many vicissitudes he rose to the ownership of a printing office. He published "Poor Richard's Almanac,"

which became famous for its proverbs. He edited and printed the best newspaper published in the American colonies. He proved, in 1752, that lightning and electricity are the same by means of a famous experiment with a kite. This discovery and the invention of the lightning rod made him widely celebrated. He founded libraries, a hospital, and a university. He went to London more than once as agent for his own and other colonies, and he promoted the repeal of the Stamp Act. He was one of the committee of Congress appointed to draft the Declaration of Independence, and was a signer of that document. Soon afterward he went to France as ambassador. It was his skilful hand that negotiated the treaty of alliance with that country, without which the Revolution could hardly have succeeded. He assisted in making the treaty of peace with England in 1782 and took part in framing the Constitution of the United States in 1787. He died in Philadelphia in 1790.

Frémont, John Charles, was born in Savannah, Georgia, in 1813, the son of a French immigrant who died when John was five years old. He was educated at Charleston College, became an engineer, and made himself famous by his explorations in the Rocky Mountain region (p. 273). He took part in the seizure of California during the war with Mexico, and was chosen one of the first Senators from that State. He was the Republican candidate for President in 1856. In the Civil War he served in Missouri and the Shenandoah valley as major-general of volunteers. He died in 1890.

Fulton, Robert, inventor, was born in Pennsylvania in 1765. After attaining success as a miniature painter, he went to London and studied art under Benjamin West. He developed considerable mechanical ability and made several inventions; among them were submarine torpedoes and a submarine boat, exhibited in France and in England, but neither invention was successful. His first experiments with the steamboat were made on the Seine River in France; but his great successes were achieved on the Hudson and the Ohio (see pp. 228, 229). He died in New York in 1815.

Garfield, James Abram, the twentieth President, was born in Ohio in 1831. He graduated at Williams College in 1856, and became a lawyer. He entered the Union army as colonel in 1861, and rose to the rank of major-general of volunteers, but resigned to take a place in Congress as representative and later became senator. He died September 19, 1881, in the first year of his presidency.

Goodyear, Charles, inventor, was born in New Haven, Connecticut, in 1800. He turned his attention to india rubber in 1834, and from then till his death he was occupied with the problem of making from it a material that should be both solid and elastic. The trouble with the first articles of india rubber was that they would turn soft and sticky in warm weather. Goodyear experimented with many different substances

in connection with the crude rubber gum, and was often in poverty and debt. In 1844 he obtained a patent for the successful method of vulcanizing rubber. He died in debt in 1860.

Grant, Ulysses S., eighteenth President, was born in Ohio, April 27, 1822. He was named Hiram Ulysses Grant, but was entered by mistake as Ulysses Simpson Grant at West Point, where he graduated in 1843. In the Mexican War he distinguished himself both in Taylor's and in Scott's campaigns. He resigned from the army in 1854. When the Civil War broke out he was clerk in his father's leather store on a bare living salary. He then became mustering officer for the State of Illinois, and was appointed colonel of the Twenty-first Illinois regiment. This was the first step in his great military career, which forms a large part of the history of the Civil War. After serving two terms as President he retired to private life and made a trip round the world. His property having been lost in business, he wrote his "Personal Memoirs" (1885), from the copyright of which his widow realized about half a million dollars. He died on the 23rd of July, 1885.

Gray, Asa, born in New York State in 1810, was a very eminent botanist, and the author of numerous works in his branch of science. In 1842 he was chosen to the Fisher Chair of Natural History in Harvard University, where he remained till his death. When, in 1864, a building was provided for his collection, it numbered two hundred thousand specimens, and it had doubled by the time of his death. He died January 30, 1888.

Gray, Robert, discoverer, was born in Rhode Island in 1755. As captain of the ship "Columbia," he was the first to carry the American flag around the world, which he did in a trading voyage in 1787-90. On a second voyage he discovered the mouth of the great river to which he gave the name of his ship. It was largely by this discovery that the United States secured claim to the Oregon country (p. 271). He died in 1806.

Greene, Nathanael, Revolutionary general, was born in Rhode Island, of Quaker parents, in 1742. He was elected a member of the colonial Assembly in 1770, and on the outbreak of the Revolution was made a brigadier-general and placed in command of the Rhode Island contingent army. He gained Washington's confidence and held important commands in most of the battles which Washington fought; but his great fame was earned in his Southern campaigns (pages 182-184). In reward for these, Georgia and the Carolinas made him large grants of property, and after the war he made his home near Savannah. He died in 1786.

Hamilton, Alexander, statesman, was born in the island of Nevis, in the West Indies, in January, 1757, but was sent to the continent of America to be educated. While a student of King's College, now Columbia University, New York, and but seventeen years of age, he made a speech

on the Revolutionary side that stamped him at once as a wonderful youth. He also wrote several anonymous pamphlets that attracted great attention and were attributed to this and that leading man of the time. When nineteen years old he took charge of an artillery company, and so distinguished himself that Washington put him on his own staff. He led the assault on one of the British outworks at Yorktown. After serving as a member of the Constitutional Convention (p. 193), he established and wrote much of "The Federalist," which was most influential in securing the adoption of the Federal Constitution. As first Secretary of the Treasury he held Congress to the duty of paying every dollar of the national debt at its face value (p. 202). He retired from office on account of poverty, but his law practice was afterwards very profitable. During the trouble with France he was in 1798 made inspector general of the army, and for a short time was the commanding general. He declined the office of chief justice. He was killed in a duel with Aaron Burr in 1804.

Hancock, John, statesman, was born in Massachusetts in 1737, and graduated at Harvard College at seventeen. He became a rich merchant, and one of the foremost revolutionary leaders in the colony. He was President of the Continental Congress, 1775-77, and the first signer of the Declaration of Independence. During and after the war he was for many years governor of Massachusetts. He died in 1793.

Harrison, Benjamin, twenty-third President, was a grandson of William Henry Harrison, the ninth President. He was born in Ohio in 1833, and graduated at Miami University at the age of eighteen. He studied law and practiced in Indianapolis, Indiana. During the Civil War he served in the Union army and rose to the rank of brigadier-general. He was United States Senator in 1881-87. After the term of his presidency he practiced law in Indianapolis, where he died in 1901.

Harrison, William Henry, ninth President, was born in Virginia in 1773 and was educated in Hampden-Sydney College. He entered the army as an ensign in 1791 and was aide-de-camp to General Wayne in his campaign against the Indians in Ohio. He was secretary of the Northwest Territory, delegate in Congress, first governor of Indiana Territory, and superintendent of Indian affairs. His successful military career in 1811-14 (see pp. 232, 237, 238) was followed by many years of service in important civil offices. His death took place in 1841, one month after his inauguration as President.

Hayes, Rutherford Burchard, nineteenth President, was born in Ohio in 1822, and graduated at the Harvard Law School in 1845. He became a major in the Union army in 1861; rose to be brigadier-general of volunteers. After the war he was sent to Congress and was three times governor of Ohio before he was elected President of the United States. He died in 1893.

Henry, Patrick, was born in Virginia in 1736. He was educated chiefly in a school taught by his father. After failing several times in farming and business he became a very successful lawyer. In 1763 he argued the Parsons' cause, as told on p. 144, and leaped at once into fame. In the legislature and elsewhere he was a radical revolutionist (see p. 146), but later became an anti-federalist. He was governor of Virginia eight years, and declined the chief justiceship of the United States and several other high offices. He died in 1799.

Hooker, Thomas, one of the founders of Connecticut, was an eminent minister, born in England in 1586. Persecuted for his religion, he went to Holland and then in 1633 to New England. After he and his flock settled Hartford (p. 64), his influence in the new Connecticut colony was very great. He died in 1647.

Howe, Elias, inventor, was born in Massachusetts in 1819, the son of a farmer and miller. He worked in machine shops in Lowell and Boston. In 1846 he patented his sewing-machine. He tried in vain to introduce it in England. On his return, he found his patent infringed, and had a long struggle in the courts before he could make good his rights. In the end he realized a fortune from it. He served as a volunteer private in the Civil War, and died in 1867.

Hudson, Henry. The time of Hudson's birth is not known. In 1607 he tried to find a route to China for an English company, by sailing straight across the north pole. Failing in that, the next year he tried to find a passage to the East Indies by sailing to the northeast. Here he failed again, but he gained a reputation as a bold explorer. The year after that, 1609, both France and Holland were bidders for his services. He sailed for Holland; and, as is told on page 69, he explored the coast of North America from Chesapeake Bay north and into Hudson River. The year following he tried to find China by the northwest passage. He sailed into the great bay which bears his name. There a part of his crew mutinied, put him and some of his men into an open boat, and sailed for England, leaving them to perish.

Irving, Washington, author, was born in New York in 1783. His works are marvels of clearness. His "Diedrich Knickerbocker's New York" is full of quaint wit, and his "Sketch Book" rivals anything of Goldsmith's. He spent many years in Europe, and was for four years American minister to Spain. He died in 1859.

Jackson, Andrew, seventh President, was born in North Carolina in 1767. He joined the Revolutionary army when he was but thirteen years old. After the war he studied law and settled in Nashville, Tennessee. He was a member of the Senate of the United States and judge of the Supreme Court in Tennessee. As an officer of the Tennessee militia, he led the Tennesseeans against the Creeks and broke their power (p. 241). Just before the close of the War of 1812 he formed an army at New Orleans out of such men as he could find,

built breastworks, and won a brilliant victory (p. 243). He failed of election in 1824 (p. 254), but was President from 1829 to 1837 (pp. 262-267). He died in 1845, the last President who had had anything to do with the Revolution.

Jackson, Thomas Jonathan, immortal under the name of "Stonewall" Jackson, was born in Clarksburg, Virginia (now West Virginia), January 21, 1824. He graduated at West Point in 1846. In the Mexican War he was twice brevetted. Resigning from the army in 1852, he became a professor in the Virginia Military Institute. He entered the Confederate service at the beginning of the war. During the first battle of Bull Run he resisted a charge with so much steadiness as to win for himself the appellation of Stonewall Jackson. The promptness and rapidity of his marches and the obstinate courage he showed on the battlefield made him an important factor in the Civil War. He was shot by mistake by his own men, at the battle of Chancellorsville, and died a few days later (1863).

Jefferson, Thomas, was born near Charlottesville, Virginia, in 1743. He was educated at William and Mary College, became a successful lawyer, and was soon recognized as the most accomplished general scholar in the colonies. He excelled in mathematics and knew five languages besides his own. From 1769 till the Revolution he was a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses. While a member of the Continental Congress he wrote the first draft of the Declaration of Independence, one of the most famous of state papers. Again in the Virginia legislature he carried through many important reforms, and for two years was governor of the State. During the critical and trying period of five years after the war he was our minister to France. He was Washington's first Secretary of State, and in 1796 was elected Vice President (p. 211). He was the third President of the United States (p. 215), and to him was due the purchase of the Louisiana territory west of the Mississippi. He died on the 4th of July, 1826, fifty years after the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, and the same day that John Adams died.

Johnson, Andrew, seventeenth President, was born in North Carolina in 1808. He learned the tailor's trade. Having removed to Tennessee in 1826, he married there and was assisted by his wife in educating himself. Becoming a good speaker, he was sent to the State legislature and to Congress. Later he was elected governor of his State. He did all in his power to keep Tennessee in the Union, and he was the only Southern Senator who retained his place in the United States Senate when his State seceded. After his presidency he reëntered politics, and was returned to the Senate in 1875, but died the same year.

Johnson, Sir William, was born in Ireland in 1715, but came to North America in 1738, and settled among the Mohawk Indians, whose

language he learned and over whom he acquired great influence. He was appointed superintendent of Indian affairs for the province of New York, and acted as such till his death. In the French and Indian War he played an important part in the operations in and near New York (pp. 112-114). He received a grant of 100,000 acres north of the Mohawk River, and built there his famous home, Johnson Hall, where he died in 1774.

Johnston, Joseph Eggleston, general, was born in Virginia in 1807. He graduated at West Point in 1829. He was distinguished in engineering work, and in the Mexican War. He resigned from the army in 1861, and entered the Confederate service, where he displayed great ability (pp. 114, 326, 342, 347). After the war he was a member of Congress one term. He died in 1891.

Jones, John Paul, sailor, was born in Scotland in 1747. He began a seafaring life at twelve years of age, and in 1773 went to Virginia. On the outbreak of the Revolution he was given a commission in the American navy. He had captured many prizes on both sides of the Atlantic, before his famous fight with the "Serapis" (p. 170). Some years later he served as a Russian rear-admiral against the Turks. He died in Paris, France, in 1792.

Lafayette, Marquis de, was of an illustrious French family. Contrary to the command of the King of France, he freighted a ship at his own expense, and landed in America in 1777 to offer his services as a simple volunteer. He was made a major-general, and by prudent conduct and courage he won the favor of Washington. He was wounded at Brandywine and distinguished himself at Monmouth. He was in France in 1779-80, when he induced the King to send Rochambeau to America. He conducted the campaign in Virginia that led up to the capture of Cornwallis. He did what he could to aid Louis XVI against the Jacobins, and was obliged to escape to Flanders. He was five years in an Austrian prison. He visited America in 1824-25 as the nation's guest, and was granted $200,000 in money and a township of land by the American Congress. He died in 1834.

La Salle, Robert Cavelier de, explorer, was born in France in 1643. He became a Jesuit, but withdrew from the order before he went to Canada. After his great explorations in the Mississippi valley (p. 96), he went to France, and in 1684 tried to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. His fleet sailed too far west in the Gulf of Mexico before landing, and the colonists were left on the shore of Texas. Some of them remained there and perished; others, with La Salle himself, started overland for Canada, but on the way they murdered him, in 1687.

Lee, Robert Edward, son of "Light-Horse Harry" Lee of the Revolution, was born in Virginia, January 19, 1807. He graduated

at West Point in 1829, second in his class. He distinguished himself in the Mexican War as Scott's chief engineer. For three years he was in command of the Military Academy at West Point. When his State, Virginia, seceded from the Union, he thought himself obliged to go with it. He resigned his commission in the army of the United States, and was made commander of the Virginia State forces and later a Confederate general. In March, 1862, he was made commander in chief of the Confederate forces. To his surpassing ability was due the stubbornness of the struggle carried on by the Confederates between Richmond and Washington. When the war was over General Lee took the result manfully and devoted himself to the building up of Washington College (now the Washington and Lee University), of which he was made president. He died on the 12th of October, 1870.

Leif Ericson, a Norse adventurer, is said to have sailed from Greenland about the year 1000, and to have discovered a country far to the south which he called Vinland (p. 9).

Lincoln, Abraham, the sixteenth President, was born in Kentucky, February 12, 1809. He was taken to Indiana when he was a little boy, and when that country was wild and rough. Later he removed with his father to Illinois. Abraham studied hard to get an education. The schools were few and the teachers ignorant, but Lincoln trained himself to think. He worked on a farm, went to New Orleans on a flatboat, acted as clerk in a country store, learned and practiced surveying, and then studied law. He served several terms in the Legislature of Illinois and one term as a member of Congress. He became a leading lawyer and politician in his State, and gained a national fame by a series of debates in which he was engaged with Senator Douglas, in 1858. In 1860 he was elected President, and the rest of his history is that of the country. His death took place on April 15, 1865.

Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth, poet, was born in Portland, Maine, in 1807, and graduated at Bowdoin College, at eighteen years of age. He spent several years in Europe. He was a professor of modern languages, first at Bowdoin and then at Harvard. His long life was passed in unwearied reading and study. His books were read in nearly all the schools of Europe, and they have been translated into nearly all the languages of Europe. He died in March, 1882. His bust is in the Poet's Corner at Westminster Abbey, the only tribute of the kind to any American.

McCormick, Cyrus Hall, inventor, was born in Virginia in 1809. At the age of twenty-two he built the first practical reaping machine that was ever made (p. 292). He afterwards removed to Chicago, where he established large shops for the manufacture of his machines. He died in 1884.

Macdonough, Thomas, who defeated the British squadron on Lake

Champlain in 1814 (p. 242), was born in Delaware in 1783. As a reward for service, he was made captain in the United States navy, and Congress voted him a gold medal. He afterwards commanded the United States squadron in the Mediterranean, and died at sea in 1825.

McKinley, William, twenty-fifth President, was born in Ohio in 1843. He enlisted as a private in Ohio infantry, and served throughout the Civil War; was made a major for gallant and meritorious service. After the war he studied law and settled in Canton, Ohio. He served several terms in Congress, and as Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee he prepared the McKinley Bill of 1890. In 1891 he was elected Governor of Ohio, in 1893 was reëlected, and in 1896 was chosen President of the United States (p. 386). On September 6, 1901, a few months after beginning his second term as President, he was shot by an assassin at the Buffalo Pan-American Exposition, and he died on September 14.

Madison, James, fourth President, was born in Virginia in 1751. He graduated at Princeton, at twenty years of age. He served many years as member of the Virginia Legislature, and as member of Congress. He was a delegate in the convention that drafted the Constitution of the United States and one of the ablest advocates of its adoption. He wrote many of the ablest papers in the "The Federalist." He was also author of the Virginia Resolutions of 1798 (p. 213). Secretary of State for eight years, he succeeded Jefferson as President, serving the two terms ending in 1817 (pp. 230-246). He died in 1836.

Magellan, Ferdinand, or, as his name is written in Portuguese, Fernão de Magalhães, was born in Portugal, about 1480. He served the Portuguese in the East Indies, but having received a slight from the Portuguese government, he publicly renounced his country and entered the service of the King of Spain. He started round the world in 1519. On the coast of Patagonia he put down a mutiny, in which three of his five ships had engaged. Later, having lost one ship, he entered the straits that bear his name, in October, 1520. One ship deserted him, but with the three others he sailed out upon the Pacific Ocean, which he so named because he found its waters quiet. He went on to the Philippines, where he was killed in a battle with the natives, in 1521. One ship, the "Victoria," put out alone and sailed the rest of the way to Spain, not daring to touch anywhere. She reached home with eighteen men barely alive, being the first ship that ever sailed round the world.

Marshall, John, the great Chief Justice of the United States (p. 214), was born in Virginia in 1755, the eldest of a family of fifteen children. He was educated mostly at home, and then studied law. He served several years as an officer in the Revolutionary army. Before his appointment as Chief Justice he had held various legislative, diplomatic, and Cabinet positions. He died in 1835.

Minuit, Peter, one of the Dutch governors of New York, was born in Rhenish Prussia in 1580. He was the founder of New York City (p. 70). After leaving the Dutch service he entered that of Sweden, and founded a colony on the west side of Delaware Bay. He erected Fort Christina, near the present city of Wilmington (p. 72), and died there in 1641.

Monroe, James, fifth President, was born in Virginia in 1758, graduated at William and Mary College in 1776, and joined the Revolutionary army immediately. He distinguished himself in several battles. He was United States Senator, Minister to France, Governor of Virginia, Minister to England, and was Secretary of State under Madison during the six years preceding his own presidency. He died in New York on the 4th of July, 1831. He was the third ex-President to die on that day, the others being Jefferson and Adams.

Montcalm, Marquis de, was born near Nîmes, France, in 1712. He was appointed commander of the French forces in Canada in 1756, and was killed in the battle of Quebec in 1759 (p. 117).

Morris, Robert, the financier of the Revolution, was born in England in 1734, but early removed to Philadelphia, where he became a member of a successful business firm. As a delegate in the Continental Congress in 1776 he voted against the Declaration of Independence, but signed it when it was adopted, and was twice reëlected to Congress. His financial skill was of the greatest value in the Revolution, and he besides lent his personal credit to a great amount. He was Superintendent of Finance, 1781-84, delegate to the Constitutional Convention, and then Senator. In his old age he failed through unfortunate investments, and for several years was imprisoned for debt. He died in 1806.

Morse, Samuel Finley Breese, inventor of the electro-magnetic telegraph, was born in Massachusetts in 1791. He was first known as a historical and portrait painter. He was for many years the President of the National Academy of Design in New York, and was Professor of Fine Arts in the University of the city of New York. In 1837 he exhibited a telegraph instrument, and in 1844 the line between Washington and Baltimore was built by an appropriation of Congress. Morse established his rights in the courts, and received many honors from foreign governments. He died in 1872.

Oglethorpe, James Edward, the founder of Georgia, was born in London in 1698. After some service in the army he was sent to Parliament, where he became interested in the condition of English prisons. After establishing his colony and defending it for several years, he returned to England in 1743, and resumed his service in the army, from which he was retired as a general on half pay in 1765. He died in 1785.

Otis, James, was born on Cape Cod in 1725. He graduated at Harvard College at eighteen years of age. He studied law, and rose to the highest

rank in his profession. When the British customs officers applied for writs of assistance that would enable them to search any house at any time, Otis's official position as advocate-general made it his duty to argue in favor of the writs. But he resigned his lucrative position and took the side of liberty. He made a speech five hours long against the writs, and this speech is considered by some the starting-point of the Revolution. He first furnished the patriots with the cry, "No taxation without representation." Worn out by the great struggle over the Stamp Act and the debates that followed, his mind gradually gave way, and he retired from public affairs. He was killed by a stroke of lightning in 1783.

Parkman, Francis, historian, was born in Boston, September 16, 1823. He graduated at Harvard College in 1844, and studied law for two years. While in College he formed a scheme of writing the story of the war that ended in the conquest of Canada. This plan he afterwards enlarged to include the whole course of the American conflict between France and England. His first step, in preparing himself for this work, was to visit various tribes of Indians of the Rocky Mountains, where he gained familiar acquaintance with the men and scenery of the wilderness. "The Conspiracy of Pontiac" (1851) and "Pioneers of France in the New World" (1865) established his position as a historical writer of high ability, and his fame increased as his later books appeared. He died September 8, 1893.

Penn, William, son of Admiral William Penn, was born in London in 1644. He was expelled from the University of Oxford for the resistance he and others made to certain religious ceremonies. He became a Friend or Quaker, and his father was with difficulty reconciled to him. He was frequently imprisoned, but he boldly asserted the principles of religious liberty. He traveled in Wales, Ireland, Holland, and Germany, and many of the kindred sects in those countries afterward came to Pennsylvania. He visited Pennsylvania himself in 1682, and again in 1699. He died in England in 1718.

Perry, Oliver Hazard, the hero of Lake Erie, was born in Rhode Island in 1785. He served as midshipman in the war with Tripoli (p. 218). After his victory on Lake Erie (p. 238), Congress promoted him to the rank of captain and presented him a silver medal. He afterwards took part in the defence of Baltimore. He died in 1819.

Philip, King, chief of the Wampanoags, was the son of Massasoit, the friend of the Pilgrims (p. 57). The Indian war to which he gave his name (p. 67) was one of the most memorable in our history. He died in 1676.

Pierce, Franklin, fourteenth President, was born in New Hampshire in 1804. He was educated at Bowdoin College, and became a lawyer. He was elected member of Congress and then Senator. He served in the Mexican War as a brigadier-general under Scott. He died in 1869.

Pocahontas, an Indian princess. The story of the manner in which she saved the life of John Smith is well known (p. 45). In 1613, she was married to John Rolfe, one of the English settlers at Jamestown. She died in 1617 while on a visit to England.

Poe, Edgar Allan, author, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1809. His parents, who were actors, having died, he was adopted by a citizen of Richmond, Virginia. He was sent to school in England. He led an irregular life, living at various times in Boston, Baltimore, Richmond, Philadelphia, and New York, and died in Baltimore in 1849. He is best known for "The Raven" and other poems, but wrote also the earliest detective stories and some other prose works, and edited several literary periodicals at different times.

Polk, James Knox, eleventh President, was born in North Carolina in 1795. He removed to Tennessee in his boyhood, and became a lawyer. For fourteen years a member of Congress, he was twice elected Speaker of the House of Representatives. He was once Governor of Tennessee. He died in 1849, a few months after the end of his presidency.

Polo, Marco, was a Venetian traveler, the account of whose travels in the Far East first attracted the attention of Europeans to India, China, and Japan (p. 10).. He was born in Venice in 1254, and died there in 1324.

Raleigh, Sir Walter, was born in 1552. For years he was a soldier on the side of the Huguenots in France. Again he fought on the side of Queen Elizabeth in Ireland. He gained the Queen's favor, it is said, by spreading his rich cloak over a muddy spot in her path as she was walking one day. He bent every energy to fight Spain when she sent the Great Armada or fleet of Spain against England. The potato, brought from somewhere in America, he had planted on his Irish estate at Youghal. King James I. kept him in prison in the Tower of London for more than twelve years to please the King of Spain, and he there wrote a history of the world. In 1618, to please the same king, James I. ordered Raleigh to be put to death, after his return from a fruitless expedition to Guiana in South America. Raleigh fell by the axe. He said, "It is a sharp medicine to cure all of my diseases."

Roosevelt, Theodore, twenty-sixth President, was born in New York city in 1858. He graduated at Harvard College in 1880. While in the New York Legislature he took the lead in civil service reform. He has published many historical and other literary works. In 1897 he was made Assistant Secretary of the Navy. The next year he resigned to take part in organizing a volunteer regiment to serve in the Spanish-American War. The regiment became known as "Roosevelt's Rough Riders." He distinguished himself at the battle of San Juan Hill, before Santiago, and was made colonel of the regiment. At the close of the war he was elected Governor of New York, and his term of office began January 1, 1899.

In 1900 he was elected Vice-President of the United States, and on the death of President McKinley, September 14, 1901, he succeeded to the presidency. In 1904, he was elected President.

Schuyler, Philip, was born at Albany, New York, in 1733. He served in the French and Indian war, and was a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1775. He was appointed major-general, and did much to secure the defeat of Burgoyne (p. 163). He resigned from the army in 1779. Later, he served two terms as United States Senator from New York.

Scott, Winfield, soldier, was born near Petersburg, Virginia, in 1786, and was educated at William and Mary College. He entered the army in 1808, and his brilliant services in the second war with England (p. 240) raised him to the rank of major-general. During the Mexican War he marched with 10,000 men from Vera Cruz to the City of Mexico, taking every strongly fortified position in his way (p. 277). He was the Whig candidate for President in 1852, but was defeated. In the Civil War his age (seventy-five years) and infirmities obliged him to stand aside for younger men. He died in 1866.

Seward, William Henry, statesman, was born in New York in 1801, graduated at Union College, and became a lawyer. He was one of the leaders, in turn, of the Antimason, Whig, and Republican parties. As a Whig he was twice chosen Governor of his State and twice United States Senator. In the Republican National Convention in 1860 he was at first the leading candidate for the nomination for President. As Secretary of State under Lincoln and Johnson he was the most prominent figure in the Cabinet during the difficult periods of Civil War and Reconstruction. He died in 1872.

Sheridan, Philip Henry, was born in Albany, New York, in 1831. He graduated at West Point in 1853. In the Civil War he first gained distinction as a cavalry commander in Missouri. Placed in command of a division, he showed great qualities at Stone River (Murfreesboro), and was promoted to the rank of major-general of volunteers. At Chickamauga and in the battles about Chattanooga he further distinguished himself. He was appointed by Grant chief of cavalry of the Army of the Potomac, and his campaigns in the Valley of Virginia made him one of the most famous generals of the war. He also played an important part in the final overthrow of Lee's army. He succeeded Sherman in command of the army in 1883, and in 1888 he was appointed general—a rank which only Grant and Sherman had attained in the United States army before him. He died in 1888.

Sherman, William Tecumseh, was born in Ohio in 1820, and graduated at West Point in 1840. He resigned from the army in 1853, engaged in banking in San Francisco, and later practiced law in Kansas. When the South seceded he was superintendent of the Military School in Louisiana.

He was reappointed to the army in May, 1861. He commanded a brigade at Bull Run, and was Grant's trusted subordinate in most of his Western campaigns; but he won his great fame in the command of the Mississippi Division after Grant had gone East. At the close of the war Sherman was next in rank to Grant, and became general when Grant was elected President. He retired in 1884, and died in 1891.

Smith, John, was born in England in 1579. In his youth he served in the wars in the Netherlands, and later he had many adventures in wars with the Turks. In Virginia in 1607-9 he was a bold explorer, and a man of much practical sense. He was very serviceable to the colonists because he managed the Indians well and got corn from them when no one else could. He left the colony in 1609, and later made a voyage to New England, to which he gave its name. He died in London in 1631.

Standish, Miles, captain of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, was born in Lancashire, England, in 1584. He served as a soldier in Holland, and came to Plymouth in the Mayflower in 1620. He was one of the founders of Duxbury, where he died in 1656.

Stephens, Alexander Hamilton, Confederate Vice President, was born in Georgia in 1812, and died in 1883. He became a lawyer, was a member of the Georgia Legislature, and for eight terms (1843-59) was a representative in Congress. He was a Whig up to 1850, when he became a Democrat. He opposed secession, but when Georgia seceded he embraced the Southern cause. After the war he was five times elected to Congress, and at the time of his death he was Governor of Georgia.

Stowe, Harriet Beecher, author, was born in Connecticut in 1811. She was a sister of the famous minister Henry Ward Beecher. She removed to Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1832, and was married in 1836. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" was published in 1851-52, was read widely in the United States, and was translated into eighteen foreign languages. Mrs. Stowe later wrote a number of other novels. She died in 1896.

Stuyvesant, Peter, the last and greatest of the Dutch governors of New York, was born in 1602. Before becoming governor, he had lost a leg in battle in the West Indies. After the English seizure of New Netherland he went to Holland, but he soon returned, and retired to his farm, called the Bowery, in what is now New York city. He died in 1682.

Taft, William Howard, was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1857. He was graduated at Yale in 1878 and at the Cincinnati College Law School in 1880. In 1887 he was appointed judge of the superior court of Cincinnati; in 1890 solicitor-general of the United States; in 1892 United States circuit judge; in 1900 president of the Philippine Commission, and in 1901 governor of the Philippines. From 1904 to 1908 he was Secretary of War, and one of the most trusted advisers of President Roosevelt.

Taylor, Zachary, was the twelfth President, and the seventh born in Virginia. He was born in 1784, and was carried to Kentucky in infancy.

He got a commission in the army at twenty-four. He gained his first distinction by his defense of Fort Harrison in the war against Tecumseh.. In a war against the Seminoles of Florida he defeated the savages at Lake Okeechobee. His great fame was won in the Mexican War by the battles of Monterey, Buena Vista, and others. He died while President, July 9, 1850.

Tyler, John, tenth President, was born in Virginia, 1790, and graduated at William and Mary College, at seventeen. He became a lawyer, and was a member of the Virginia Legislature, member of Congress, governor of Virginia, and United States Senator. He was elected Vice President, a Democrat on a Whig ticket, and became President on Harrison's death. Early in 1861 he presided over a peace convention, which met at Washington in a vain attempt to preserve the Union and avert civil war. Later he favored the secession of Virginia, and was a member of the Confederate Congress. He died in 1862.

Van Buren, Martin, the eighth President, was born in New York, in 1782. He became a great politician, and was in succession a member of the New York Legislature, United States Senator, and governor of New York. Jackson appointed him Secretary of State in 1829, and four years later he was inaugurated Vice President. After his presidency he retained much influence in politics for some years, and was once the presidential candidate of the Free Soil party. After this he retired to his estate at Kinderhook, New York, where he died in 1862.

Vespucius, Americus, or, in Italian, Amerigo Vespucci, was born in Florence, Italy, in 1451. He removed to Spain before Columbus made his first voyage. As an expert navigator he took part in four voyages to America, the first in 1497. He went up and down the coast in the service, first of Spain and then of Portugal, from Chesapeake Bay to the Plata River. In 1503 he built a fort on the coast of Brazil. He was a friend of Christopher Columbus. He was pilot-major of Spain in 1508, and died in 1512.

Washington, George, was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732. His father was a planter with a large landed property; his mother was a woman of great force of character, but like many women of her time, she had little education. Washington got such education as the country schools afforded. He learned surveying and bookkeeping. His exercise books were models of exactness. Washington grew up a lad of great strength. He took the lead in sports and was one of the best horsemen of the day. While yet a mere boy he was engaged in surveying the wild lands of Lord Fairfax, an English nobleman who owned a great tract of Virginia territory. He thus came to know the frontier habits of the Indian. He was a major of militia at nineteen, and was only twenty-one when Governor Dinwiddie sent him on a mission to the French posts on the Ohio. By his prudent conduct in

expeditions against Fort Duquesne (pp. 111, 115), he won the confidence of the American people. He was a member of the Continental Congress, and Patrick Henry said of him that for "solid information and sound judgment," he was "unquestionably the greatest man" on the floor of Congress. The rest of his life belongs to the history of his country. He died December 14, 1799, at Mount Vernon.

Wayne, Anthony, was born in Pennsylvania in 1745. He entered the army as a colonel in 1776, and distinguished himself in many actions, notably in the storming of Stony Point. It was his careful organization and bold execution of enterprises during the Revolution that led Washington to select him to retrieve St. Clair's defeat by the Indians of the Northwest Territory (p. 206). He died in 1796, near Lake Erie.

Webster, Daniel, orator and statesman, was born in New Hampshire in 1782. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1801, and in 1805 was admitted to the bar. He won great fame as an orator, and represented Massachusetts in the Senate many years. He took part in every great debate of his time and in celebrated cases before the courts. His cardinal principle was to uphold the Constitution. He was appointed Secretary of State by President William Henry Harrison and again by President Fillmore. He died in 1852.

Whitney, Eli, inventor, was born in Massachusetts in 1765. He worked as a nail maker until he graduated from Yale College in 1792. He went to Georgia and invented the cotton gin (p. 250). The building in which it was kept was broken into and the machine was set going on every plantation. Whitney, thus robbed of the profits of his invention, turned his attention to the manufacture of firearms, in which he made a fortune. He died in 1825.

Williams, Roger, founder of Rhode Island, was born in England in 1607. He was an earnest preacher, spoke several languages, and wrote some works on theological subjects. His title to fame rests on his introduction of the principle of the entire separation of church and State, in the colony he founded. He died at Providence, Rhode Island, in 1683.

Wilson, Woodrow, was born in Virginia in 1856. He was educated at Princeton and at the University of Virginia, practiced law for two years, and then became a college professor. He was president of Princeton University from 1902 to 1910, when he was elected governor of New Jersey. He is the author of several books on history and government.

Winthrop, John, born in 1588 in England, was the principal founder of Massachusetts (pp. 59, 60), and was governor of the colony almost continually until his death in 1649.

Wolfe, James, soldier, was born in England in 1726, and entered the army at an early age. He saw much fighting in Europe and Scotland before he was sent to America. He served as a brigadier-general with Amherst in the siege and capture of Louisburg in 1758, and next year was given charge of the expedition against Quebec, which ended in his success and in his death on the battle-field.

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